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Educational discourse in teaching EFL to kindergarten children: an ethnographic study

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OŚWIADCZENIE

Ja, niżej podpisany/a

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student/ka Wydziału Neofilologii
Uniwersytetu im. Adama Mickiewicza w Poznaniu
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że przedkładaną pracę dyplomową

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napisałem/am samodzielnie.

Oznacza to, że przy pisaniu pracy, poza niezbędnymi konsultacjami, nie korzystałem/am z pomocy innych osób, a w szczególności nie zlecałem/am opracowania rozprawy lub jej istotnych części innym osobom, ani nie odpisywałem/am tej rozprawy lub jej istotnych części od innych osób.

Jednocześnie przyjmuję do wiadomości, że gdyby powyższe oświadczenie okazało się nieprawdziwe, decyzja o wydaniu mi dyplomu zostanie cofnięta.

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(miejscowość, data) (czytelny podpis)

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EFL – English as a Foreign Language

SLA – Second Language Acquisition

FL – Foreign Language

IRF – Initiation – Response – Feedback

PG1 – puppet group no 1

PG2 – puppet group no 2

CG – control group

CGP - control group with the puppet

Introduction

Effective teaching of foreign languages to young learners at the kindergarten and early elementary school level has become one of the main educational objectives in the united Europe and other parts of the world. In recent times, the Polish educational system has undergone significant changes in terms of the lowering of the age at which children begin elementary school and at which foreign language learning becomes obligatory. Yet, young learners' foreign language education still constitutes a real challenge and its shape has not been fully determined.

The present dissertation is going to describe and explore educational discourse in teaching EFL to Polish kindergarten children. It has been observed that teaching foreign languages to young learners evokes a growing interest among Polish researchers. Numerous studies have been conducted in this field so far. However, none of them have dealt with children's discourse in a foreign language classroom. Moreover, research on classroom discourse conducted in Poland has mainly focused on high school learners. Hence, the paucity of research in this area has compelled the author of the present dissertation to explore educational discourse occurring between the teacher and 5- and 6-year old children learning English as a foreign language, and to investigate the modifications it undergoes after the implementation of the puppet, an imaginative didactic tool, which acts as a native speaker of English, thus, as a provider of authentic input, and as a teacher's assistant. The dissertation consists of six chapters; the first three are theoretical in nature, the further two constitute the empirical part of the dissertation, whereas the last chapter presents conclusions and implications derived from the conducted study.

Discourse found in the educational context will constitute the main concern of Chapter I. In order to fully understand the phenomenon of discourse competence, we will attempt to discern its descent by discussing the evolution of the concept of language competence. We will draw from the following sources: Noam Chomsky (1965), Ruth Campbell

and Roger Wales (1970), Dell Hymes (1972), M.A.K. Halliday (1973), Michael Canale and Merrill Swain (1980), Michael Canale (1983), Sandra Savignon (1983) and Lyle Bachman (1990). Next, we will define discourse and discuss the two contrasting views held by formalists and functionalists. Our considerations will be based on Guy Cook (1989), Agnes Weiyun He (2001), Hugh Trappes-Lomax (2004), Michael McCarthy (1991), Teun van Dijk and Walter Kintsch (1983), Grace Wales Shugar (1995) and David Nunan (1993). So as to reconcile the discrepancies existing between them, we will present, following Deborah Schiffrin (1994), an alternative definition of the term, namely discourse as utterances. Various approaches to discourse will be shown, following John Austin (1962), John Searle (1969), John Gumperz (1982), Dell Hymes (1974), Paul Grice (1975) and Harold Garfinkel (1967), which consequently leads us to the presentation of educational discourse in the EFL classroom, with a keen interest in its nature, goals, structure and types, as well as research findings collated in Poland in this domain. The primary works used for compiling this section include: Moira Chimombo and Robert Roseberry (1998), Maciej Kawka (1999), Anna Niżegorodcew (1991, 1992, 2007), Barbara Guzik (2003), Mirosław Pawlak (2004), Paul Heckman (1987), Leo van Lier (1984), Teresa Pica (1987), Jan Majer (2003), Malcolm Coulthard (1977), John Sinclair and Malcolm Coulthard (1975, 1992), Alec McHoul (1987), John Sinclair and David Brazil (1982), Rod Ellis (1988, 1994), Teresa Pica and Michael Long (1986), Michael Long and Charlene Sato (1983), Wolfgang Butzkamm and Calaway Dodson (1980), Arno Bellack et al. (1966), John Fanselow (1977), Patrick Allen et al. (1984), Maria Fröhlich et al. (1985), Jane Willis (1992), and Talmy Givón (1979).

In order to fully understand the factors exerting influence on a preschool child learning a foreign language, one needs to take a closer look at developmental psychology. Although a child's psychological maturation is concurrent with his/her linguistic growth, we will first focus on the development in cognitive, social and emotional domains, which will be presented in Chapter II. Following James Vander Zanden et al. (2007), David Ausubel (1968), Ann Birch and Tony Malim (2002 [1995]), Jean Piaget (1966 [1964]), Rudolph Schaffer (2006), Geoffrey Brown (1977), Bärbel Inhelder (1970), Dennis Child (1986), David Elkind and Irving Weiner (1978), Ross Vasta et al. (1995), Robert Owens (1984), Anna Matczak (2003) and John Anderson (1985), we will illustrate cognitive maturation in terms of the changes that occur in the course of the child's passing through the developmental stages and attaining higher intellectual skills, as well as forming various concepts. Next, the socio-emotional sphere will be discussed, including the effects of the socialization process and the parts played by its agents, i.e. parents and peers; the role of emotions

in a child's life and the development of emotional self-regulation; and the main changes in personality together with the development of self-esteem and self-efficacy. Our considerations will be based on Vander Zanden et al. (2007), Lev Vygotsky (1978), David Wood et al. (1976), Mark Bennet (2005), Hildy Ross and Catherine Spielmacher (2005), Daniel Goleman (1997 [1995]), Eric Jensen (1998), Erik Erikson (1963), Marion Williams and Robert Burden (1997), Carol Tavris and Carole Wade (1999 [1995]). Finally, the importance of play in a child's life will be shown with an emphasis on its nature, types and functions. We will refer to Guy Cook (2000), Johan Huizinga (1985), Teresa Siek-Piskozub (1995, 2001), Wincenty Okoń (1987), Peter Smith (2005), Jean Piaget (1959), Sara Smilansky (1968), Susan Takata (1974) and M.B. Parten (1932).

Since cognitive and socio-emotional maturation are closely related to the child's communicative growth, Chapter III will discuss his/her linguistic development, with special attention paid to the communicative area. First, we will present the psychological viewpoint and discuss the nature of the child's speech focusing on the distinction between speech, language and communication, which will be followed by the portrayal of the controversy over egocentric speech. The discussion will be based on Robert Owens (1984), Raymond Kent (2005), Michael Canale (1983), Jean Piaget (1992 [1923], 1966), David Elkind and Irving Weiner (1978), Margaret Harris and Max Coltheart (1986) and Lev Vygotsky (1962). Then, we will show the linguistic perspective on language, beginning with the development of child's L1 competence with special emphasis on early auditory and phonological as well as syntactic and morphological development. We will refer to Olga Garnica (1973), Brian MacWhinney (2005), Susan Foster-Cohen (1999), Ronald Macaulay (1980), William O'Grady (2005), Barry McLaughlin (1978), Roger Brown (1973), Geoffrey Brown (1977), Edward Klima and Ursula Bellugi (1966), Ann Peters (1977, 1983), Barbara Wood (1976) and Eve Clark (1993). The subsequent section will deal with the child's discourse development in L1. Functions of the child's language will be discussed as well as his/her conversational skills, including the development of turn-taking mechanism, the ways of dealing with breakdowns in conversations, the ability to apply cohesive devices, and the categories of utterances which build meaningful and sustained talk exchanges between children. We will draw from the following sources: Susan Foster (1990), M.A.K. Halliday (1975), Grace Wales Shugar (1995), Malcolm Coulthard (1985), Eve Clark (2003), Ochs Elinor Keenan (1983), Maya Hickmann (1995), Barbara Wood (1976), Michael McTear (1985), Susan Ervin-Tripp and Claudia Mitchell-Kernan (1977), Barbara Lust (2006), Ochs Elinor Keenan and Ewan Klein (1975). Further, the development of the child's L2 compe-

tence will be presented, including the discussion devoted to the analogy between L2 and L1 acquisition, the acquisition order peculiar for L2 and the phenomenon of interference. Our considerations will be based on Susan Foster-Cohen (1999), Barry McLaughlin (1978), Janusz Arabski (1985, 1996), Ellen Bialystok (1994), Robert Politzer (1974), Susan Ervin-Tripp (1974), Heidi Dulay and Marina Burt (1973, 1974a, b, c), Heidi Dulay et al. (1982), Susan Gass and Larry Selinker (2008), John Milon (1974), Carolyn Kessler and I. Idar (1977) and Diana Natalicio and Luiz Natalicio (1971). Finally, we will introduce research findings concerning child L2 discourse occurring both in natural and instructional setting, as well as the results of studies conducted in Poland devoted to teaching foreign languages to young learners. We will draw from the following sources: Sabrina Peck (1978, 1980), Ruth Cathcart-Strong (1986), Rod Ellis (1986), Maria Juan-Garau and Carmen Pérez-Vidal (2001), Asta Cekaite and Karin Aronsson (2004, 2005), Ana Llinares García (2007), Ruth Kanagy (1999), Ray Chesterfield and Kathleen Chesterfield (1985), Roy Lyster (1998), Alison MacKey and Rhonda Oliver (2002), Rhonda Oliver and Alison Mackey (2003), Pauline Foster and Amy Ohta (2005), Teresa Siek-Piskozub (2009), Dorota Sikora-Banasik (2009), Bogdan Krakowian (2000), Janusz Arabski (2001), Joanna Rokita (2005), Magdalena Szpotowicz (2003), Anna Raulinajtys (2009), Joanna Zawodniak (2005), Jolanta Grywaczewska (2006), Małgorzata Szulc-Kurpaska (2001), Magdalena Olpińska (2000), Małgorzata Pamuła (2003), Anna Zwierzycka-Raulinajtys (2007), Jan Iluk (2006).

Chapter IV is going to present the research tradition found in an EFL context, which will enable us to further illustrate the research methodology applied in the study conducted for the purpose of the present dissertation. The inquiry consists of two parts, namely the background study, which examines the impact of the puppet on teaching EFL to kindergarten children and sets the scene for the study proper, which concerns the analysis of educational discourse in the EFL kindergarten classroom and investigates different aspects of classroom discourse occurring in the following interactional configurations: the teacher-learners and the teacher-the puppet-learners. The author, by adopting an ethnographic approach, employs three different methods for gathering data so as to provide a holistic, detailed, contextually grounded, and emic perspective of the issue under scrutiny and to apply methodological triangulation. The background study encompasses participant and non-participant observation; the study proper involves audio recordings on the basis of which numerous lesson transcripts have been made.

Chapter V will present the results of the background study and the study proper, which will be followed by their discussion and interpretation. In Chapter VI, we will at-

tempt to draw conclusions and evaluate the research results, as well as to formulate implications for foreign language didactics at the kindergarten and early elementary school level and for further research in this field.

Chapter 1: Discursive competence in the educational context

1.0. Introduction

Nowadays, it is impossible to understand language entirely without looking at language use. We are surrounded by connected sound waves and orthographic forms to which we assign meaning based on our knowledge and experience, as well as on the context in which these waves and forms occur. Our world is infused with discourse. As stated by Weiyun He (2001: 428), "to imagine a world without discourse is to imagine a world without language and therefore to imagine the unimaginable." The present chapter will discuss the evolution of the concept of language competence, which has undergone significant reformulations so as to include grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences. The shift of researchers' interest has moved from the internal, or the structure of language, to the external, that is, the socio-cultural features of language use. Discourse competence emerged as one of the consequences of this shift. Further, we will attempt to define discourse and discuss the two contrasting views held by formalists and functionalists. In order to bridge the gap between them, we will present an alternative definition of the term, namely discourse as utterances. Then, various approaches to discourse will be shown, which consequently leads us to the presentation of educational discourse in the EFL classroom, with a keen interest in its nature, goals, structure and types, as well as research findings collated in Poland in this domain.

1.1. On defining language competence

Until the 1980s, a preponderance of research on first language acquisition focused on certain aspects of phonological, syntactic or semantic development – usually, as pointed out by

Andersen (1990: 6), "on the child's ability to acquire control of rules for language structure." This center of attention has been shaped in large part due to the concept of linguistic competence proposed by Chomsky (1965), which constituted a driving force in the study of children's language. The following statement of Chomsky (1965: 3) was fundamental to linguistics at that time:

> Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogenous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.

By linguistic competence, Chomsky means the native speaker's knowledge of his/her own language, the set of internalized rules about the language that enables him/her to create an infinite number of grammatical sentences and to comprehend sentences spoken to him. Linguistic competence is perceived as the tacit knowledge of language structure, which is commonly not conscious or ready for spontaneous use, but implicit in what the ideal speaker-listener can say. The concept is limited by homogenous community and perfect knowledge, and is independent of various performance phenomena.

For Chomsky (1965), the sphere of linguistics is divided into two parts: "competence" and "performance". Since these two terms are used interchangeably in discussions of second language approaches and imply significant distinctions for the purposes of second language teaching, it is useful to discuss them thoroughly. Campbell and Wales (1970, as cited in Canale and Swain 1980: 3) notice that Chomsky (1965) uses these terms in both a weak sense and a strong sense. The weak sense is illustrated in the following passage:

> We thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language) and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations). (…) In actual fact, it [performance] obviously could not directly reflect competence. A record of natural speech will show numerous false starts, deviations from rules, changes of plan in mid-course, and so on. (Chomsky 1965: 4)

Therefore, competence refers to the knowledge of grammatical rules and of other aspects of language, while performance means the implementation of that knowledge in actual use. As for Chomsky's (1965) stronger claim, competence refers to the linguistic system that an ideal native speaker of a given language has internalized, whereas performance concerns the psychological factors that speech production and perception entails. From this angle, as stated by Canale and Swain (1980: 3–4), a theory of competence is tantamount to a theory

of grammar and is concerned with the linguistic rules that can generate and describe the grammatical sentences of a language. A theory of performance, on the other hand, deals with the acceptability of sentences in speech perception and production, and interacts between the theory of grammar and the set of non-grammatical psychological factors bearing on language use.

The first critical comments aimed against Chomsky came from Hymes (1972) as well as Campbell and Wales (1970), who, as observed by Canale and Swain (1980: 4), pointed out that the stronger version of the competence-performance distinction neglects the appropriateness of the socio-cultural significance of an utterance in the situational and verbal context in which it is used. Chomsky (1965: 15) is aware of the fact that work in generative grammar has come in for criticism in that it glosses over the study of performance in favor of the study of underlying competence. He further adds that studies of performance are conducted as by-products of work in generative grammar. Hymes (1972: 271) emphasizes:

> Such a theory of competence posits ideal objects in abstraction from sociocultural features that might enter into their description. Acquisition of competence is also seen as essentially independent of sociocultural features, requiring only suitable speech in the environment of the child to develop. The theory of performance is the one sector that might have a specific sociocultural content; but while equated with a theory of language use, it is essentially concerned with psychological by-products of the analysis of grammar, not, say, with social interaction.

According to Paulston (1990: 288), the majority of the criticism leveled against Chomsky concerns the incapability of his attempts to explain language in terms of the narrow notions of the linguistic competence of an ideal hearer-speaker in a homogenous society. Such a speaker, as claimed by Hymes (1972: 277), is likely to become institutionalized only if he/she produces any and all of the grammatical sentences of the language with no regard for their appropriateness. He (Hymes 1972: 272) states that while "performance" is treated as a residual category by Chomsky, its most striking connotation is that of an imperfect manifestation of the underlying system. It has been admitted by Hymes that indeed any stretch of speech constitutes an imperfect indication of the knowledge that underlies it. However, the image that unfolds is that of "an abstract, isolated individual, almost an unmotivated cognitive mechanism, not, except incidentally, a person in a social world." Hymes (1972: 272) claims that linguistics at that time took structure as a primary end in itself and tended to depreciate use. Chomsky's (1965) theoretical standpoint contains the inclination towards dealing solely with the internal system of the language. In fact, as

Hymes (1972: 273) points out, "no modern linguistic theory has spoken more profoundly of either the internal structure or the intrinsic human significance."

Therefore, Hymes (1972) insists on transcending the notions of perfect competence, homogeneous speech community and independence of socio-cultural factors to differential competence, heterogeneous speech community with the emphasis on the constitutive role of socio-cultural features. In this way he delineates the way in which a linguistic theory should develop to cater for all of the above mentioned concepts. Hymes argues that at some point in acquisition children must learn to speak not only grammatically correct, but also appropriately. They need to learn numerous sociolinguistic and social interactional rules that control appropriate language use. His arguments are illustrated by the following statements:

> We have then to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others. This competence, moreover, is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations concerning language, its features and uses, and integral with competence for, and attitudes toward, the interrelation of language with the other code of communicative conduct [viz. social interaction]. (Hymes 1972: 277–278)

Chomsky's (1965) concept, as observed by Andersen (1990: 6) led to the socio- and psycho-linguistically-oriented researchers' dissatisfaction with "a monolithic, idealized notion of competence." According to Campbell and Wales (1970: 247), "by far the most important linguistic ability" is that of being able to "produce or understand utterances which are not so much grammatical, but, more important, appropriate to the context in which they are made." If we perceive competence as the underlying knowledge and ability for language use which the speaker-listener possesses, then we need to accept that this involves something more than knowledge of grammaticality. As Hymes (1972: 278) puts it, "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless." With regard to Chomsky's (1965) strong claim that competence should be associated solely with the knowledge of grammatical rules, both Hymes (1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970) propose a broader notion of competence, i.e. communicative competence. The notion of competence has been extended to include not only grammatical competence, but also native speakers' capacity to produce and understand utterances appropriate to the situational and verbal context; that is, as Canale and Swain (1980: 4) call it, contextual or sociolinguistic

competence. Paulston (1990: 289) states that communicative competence does not simply constitute a term; it is a concept essential for understanding social interaction. Savignon (1983: 8–9) perceives communication as dependent "on the negotiation of meaning between two or more persons (…) [It] is context specific. Communication takes place in an infinite variety of situations, and success in a particular role depends on one's understanding of the context and on prior experience of a similar kind." As H. D. Brown (1994: 227) notices, communicative competence is not so much an intrapersonal construct as Chomsky (1965) proposed, but rather a dynamic, interpersonal construct that can only be examined through the overt performance of two or more individuals involved in the process of negotiating meaning.

Andersen (1990: 6) points out that the change of emphasis in linguistic theory has been accompanied by a shift in focus in studies of acquisition. She adds that since children acquiring language must certainly learn more than grammatical rules and vocabulary alone, other facets of their communicative competence are worthy of attention.

The theory of communicative competence proposed by Hymes (1972: 281) is comprised of knowledge of four types, namely:

- whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
- whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
- whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
- whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails.

As Canale and Swain (1980: 16) note, Hymes views communicative competence "as the interaction of grammatical (what is formally possible), psycholinguistic (what is feasible in terms of human information processing), sociocultural (what is the social meaning or value of a given utterance) and probabilistic (what actually occurs) systems of competence." They further add that incorporating probabilistic rules of occurrence into Hymes' model seems to be a significant aspect of language use which is neglected in almost all other models of communicative competence. In his opinion, the objective of a theory of communicative competence would be to show directions in which "the systematically possible, the feasible, and the appropriate are linked to produce and interpret actually occurring cultural behavior" (Hymes 1972: 286).

Hymes' model of communicative competence has been complemented by a conspicuous theory of the functions of language that was developed by M. A. K. Halliday, who

proposed Systemic Functional Grammar, known also by the name of Systemic Functional Linguistics. Halliday (1973: 11–17) distinguishes seven functional categories of language used by children in the acquisition of their first language: the instrumental function (includes a general expression of desire), the regulatory function (using language to control the behavior of others – the so called 'do as I tell you' function), the interactional function (enables the child to interact with other people), the personal function (expresses emotional states, personal feelings and meanings), the heuristic function (the 'tell me why' function; prevails in the questioning forms the child uses), the imaginative function (due to which the child creates his/her own environment) and finally the representational function (using language to convey facts and knowledge). As Halliday (1970: 145–146) points out, we want communicative competence to enable us to "communicate something. We use language to represent our experience of the processes, persons, objects, abstractions, qualities, states, and relations of the world around us and inside us." According to him, language is constituted by a system of meaning potential, i.e. as the sets of semantic options the language user has at his/her disposal, which relate what the user can achieve in terms of social behavior to what the user can say in terms of grammar. Halliday's (1973) 'meaning potential' approach to language has been developed mainly at the clause rather than at the discourse level and implies that language is neither a well-defined system nor a set of grammatical rules.

The distinction between communicative competence and grammatical competence has raised a great deal of controversy in the literature. Canale and Swain (1980: 5) draw our attention to two problems, namely, whether or not grammatical competence constitutes a subcomponent of communicative competence, and whether or not communicative competence should be distinguished from communicative performance. Munby (1978) advocates the view that communicative competence includes grammatical competence since this stance enables us to eliminate the following two conclusions: first, that grammatical competence and communicative competence should be taught separately, or the former should be taught before the latter, and, second, that grammatical competence is not an essential component of communicative competence. Let us now discuss the controversy of whether or not communicative competence should be distinguished from communicative performance. In Canale and Swain's (1980: 5) opinion, "it is fair to say that almost all researchers" coping with communicative competence do maintain this differentiation. However, they notice that Halliday (1970) and Kempson (1977) constitute the exceptions. Kempson (1977: 54–55), for example, follows Chomsky's (1965) strong position in that competence

refers solely to grammar rules and as a consequence identifies the notion of communicative competence with a theory of performance. According to her, the study of competence must clearly precede the study of performance.

Canale and Swain (1980: 6–7) assume that communicative competence mirrors the relationship or the interaction between grammatical competence, that is knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, that is knowledge of the rules of language use. However, they emphasize that the study of sociolinguistic competence is as important to the study of communicative competence as is the study of grammatical competence. In their opinion, communicative competence does not constitute the highest or broadest level of language competence which is significant for second language teaching. In fact, it is perceived as a subcomponent of a more general language competence. In the theoretical framework of communicative competence proposed by Canale and Swain (1980: 28), they distinguish three main components, i.e. grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Canale (1983) makes a further distinction between sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence. Grammatical and discourse competence reflect the use of the linguistic system itself. The former entails, in Canale and Swain's (1980: 29) words, "the knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology." Therefore, as stated by Canale (1983: 7), this type of competence remains concerned with the mastery of the language code itself. It is relevant for any communicative approach whose objective is to provide learners with the knowledge of how to determine and express accurately the literal meaning of utterances. The latter subcomponent of communicative competence, that is, discourse competence, involves the ability to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to create a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances. Canale (1983: 9) states that it entails the capacity "to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres." He further explains that the unity of a text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning. Cohesion deals with how utterances are linked structurally and facilitates a text's interpretation, whereas coherence concerns the relationships among the different meanings in a text, where these meanings may be literal meanings, communicative functions, or attitudes. While grammatical competence focuses on sentence-level grammar, as observed by H. D. Brown (1994: 228), discourse competence refers to intersentential relationships. The two remaining subcomponents of communicative competence represent a more functional facet of communication. Sociolinguistic competence consists of two sets of rules, namely, sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse,

which are crucial in searching for utterances' social meaning. "The primary focus of these rules", in Canale and Swain's (1980: 30) words, "is on the extent to which certain propositions and communicative functions are appropriate within a given sociocultural context depending on contextual factors such as topic, role of participants, setting, and norms of interaction." A secondary concern of such rules refers to the extent to which particular grammatical forms are conveyed with appropriate attitude, register and style, within a given sociocultural context. Savignon (1983: 37) states that sociolinguistic competence "requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of this kind can judgements be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance." The fourth subcomponent is strategic competence, which, as described by Canale and Swain (1980: 30), is based on "verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence." It is compensatory in nature, since it is applied in cases when our competence is inadequate and we go beyond it by means of, as enumerated by Savignon (1983: 40–41), "paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style."

Significant remarks on the notion of communicative competence also appeared on the Polish linguistic scene. E. Wąsik (2007: 171) points out that the already defined concept of communicative competence found its application in the field of glottodidactics after it had been stated that not only the presentation of structural-linguistic facts is essential in the process of foreign language teaching, but also the inculcation of cultural and pragmatic knowledge. Nowacka (2010: 261), on the other hand, draws out attention to the fact that it is the communicative competence of a FL teacher that is crucial for the development of learners' communicative skills, together with his/her ability to create a congenial classroom atmosphere conducive to the learners' linguistic activity and their sense of fulfillment.

Hymes' (1972) and Canale and Swain's (1980) definitions of communicative competence have undergone significant modifications over the years, which are best captured in Bachman's (1990) model of language competence. It attempts to illustrate processes by which the components interact with each other and with the context of the occurrence of language use. Bachman (1990: 84) adds strategic competence as a separate component of communicative language ability (CLA) (see Figure 1). The framework of CLA consists of language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms. Language competence includes a set of knowledge components that are employed in communi-

cation. Strategic competence enables one to implement the components of language competence in contextualized communicative language use. Psychophysiological mechanisms concern the neurological and psychological processes involved in the actual execution of language as a physical phenomenon.

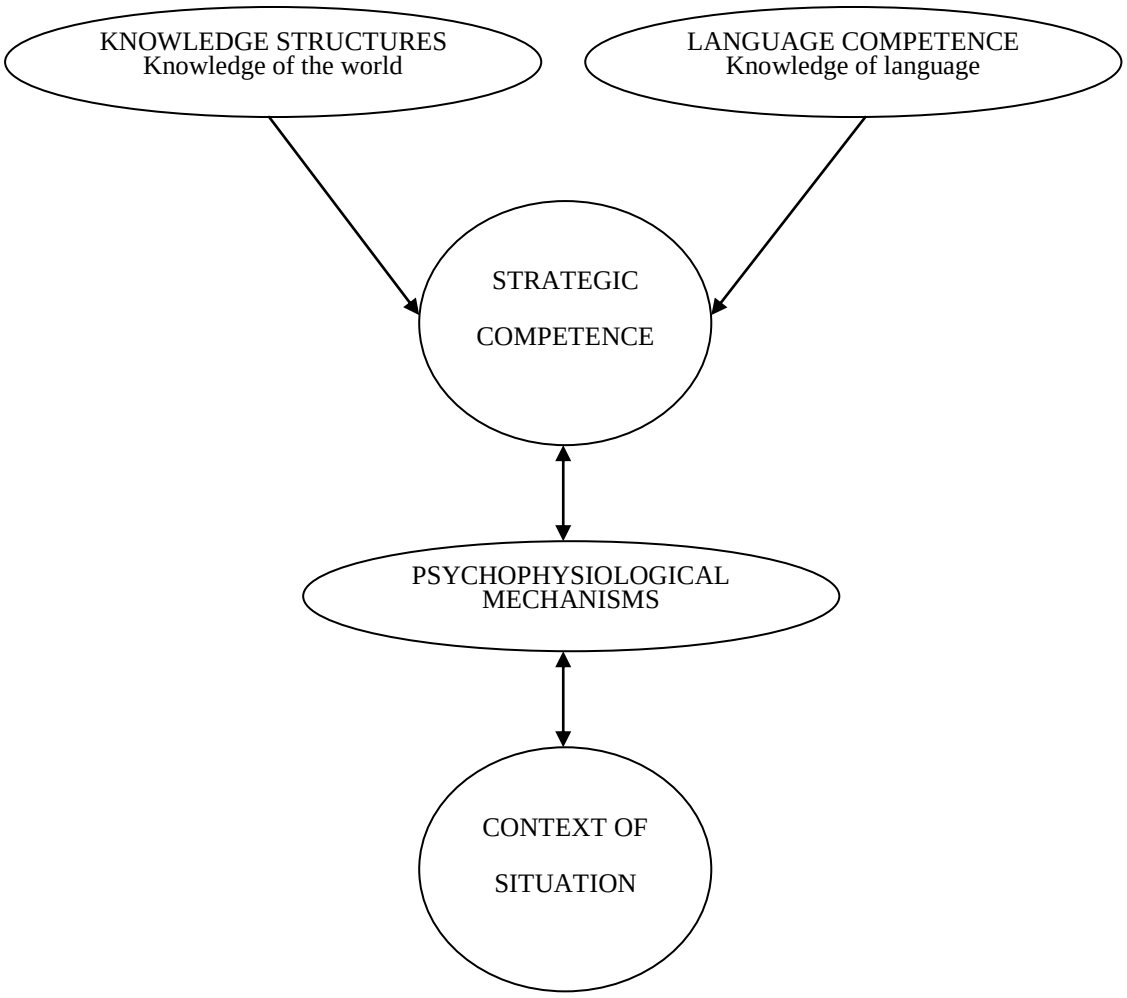


Figure 1. Components of communicative language ability (after Bachman 1990:85)

Former frameworks of communicative competence, as noted by Bachman (1990: 84), included several different components linked to what he identifies as language competence. It consists of two broad categories, i.e. organizational competence and pragmatic competence (see Figure 2). Grammatical and discourse (renamed textual) competence are placed under the node of organizational competence, which entails the skills involved in controlling the formal structure of language for the production and comprehension of grammatically correct sentences, grasping their propositional content, and ordering them to form texts. Grammatical competence consists of the knowledge of vocabulary, morpholo-

gy, syntax and phonology/graphology. Textual competence, on the other hand, includes the knowledge of conventions for joining utterances together to form a text, which consists of two or more utterances or sentences organized according to the rules of cohesion and rhetorical organization. Bachman (1990: 88), following Halliday and Hasan (1976), points out that cohesion refers to the ways of explicitly marking semantic relationships such as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Rhetorical organization, as proposed by van Dijk (1977: 4), pertains to the general conceptual structure of a text and refers to the effect the text has on the language user. Pragmatic competence, as stated by Bachman (1990: 90) is broken into two separate categories: illocutionary competence, i.e. the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and sociolinguistic competence, perceived as the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context. Bachman (1990: 86) concludes that the diagram (see Figure 2) schematizing language competence represents the hierarchical relationships among its components. He emphasizes the fact that in language use these components all interact with each other and with features of a language use situation, and it is this very interaction between the various competencies and the language use context that characterizes communicative language use.

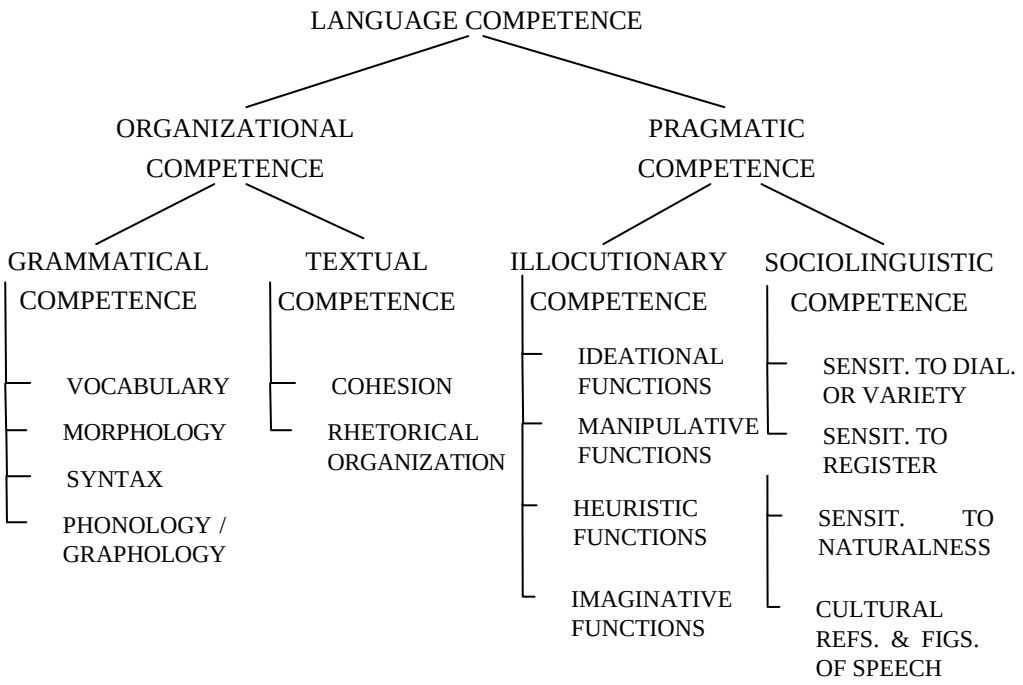


Figure 2. Components of language competence (adapted from Bachman 1990: 87)

The model proposed by Bachman (1990) has been adopted by Bachman and Palmer (1996), who define language ability as involving two components, i.e. language competence, or what they call language knowledge, and strategic competence, which they describe as a set of metacognitive strategies. Language knowledge is considered as a domain of information in memory that is available for use by the metacognitive strategies in creating and interpreting discourse in language use. It consists of two broad categories: organizational and pragmatic knowledge, further subdivided into grammatical and textual knowledge, and functional and sociolinguistic knowledge, respectively. In fact, as Bachman and Palmer (1996: 67) put it, "it is this combination of language knowledge and metacognitive strategies that provides language users with the ability, or capacity, to create and interpret discourse, either in responding to tasks on language tests or in non-test language use".

Other significant developments of the notion of communicative competence are elaborated in "The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment" published in 2001 and discussed by Komorowska (2006: 65) and E. Wąsik (2007: 173). The document distinguishes, alongside with linguistic competences, "four savoirs", i.e. declarative knowledge (savoir), existential competence (savoir-être), skills and knowing how (savoir-faire), and the ability to learn (savoir-apprendre). Each of these general competences is in some way related to the socio-cultural competence of the learner, a concept introduced in 1996 by the Council of Europe in Strasbourg and the European Center for Modern Language in Graz.

So far, we have illustrated the evolution of the concept of language competence, beginning with Chomsky's (1965) linguistic competence, which, having met with criticism, has been broadened to include sociocultural features and evolved into communicative competence, as proposed by Hymes (1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970). Further, it was complemented by Halliday's (1973) Systemic Functional Linguistics with an emphasis on the functions of language use. Finally, we have discussed Bachman's (1990) model of language competence and communicative language ability, further elaborated by Bachman and Palmer (1996). In the subsequent section, we will attempt to define discourse, focusing on two paradigms, i.e. formalism and functionalism, which resulted in the two opposing views on discourse. In order to reconcile the difference between them, an alternative definition of the term will be presented, i.e. discourse as utterances.

1.2. On defining discourse

A great deal of language study, as well as language teaching, has been devoted to sentences. However, we are all aware of the fact that producing and understanding meaningful language and communicating successfully with other people encompasses more than the ability to make and recognize correct sentences. The language that is used to communicate and helps to bridge the gap between the participants of social interaction, the one, which is felt to be coherent may be defined as discourse. The term 'discourse' deserves special attention since it constitutes the main concern of the present dissertation. However, it is impossible to speak of a single meaning of the term. Yet, we will endeavor to present a comprehensive standpoint of the notion in question. The broadest conception of discourse comes from Foucault (1972 [1969]: 49), who views discourses as "practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak". In such a way discourse shapes the reality we live in and is enriched as well as developed by this reality. According to Fairclough (1995: 31), discourse "[i]s socially shaped, but it is also socially shaping". A similar viewpoint is provided by Paltridge (2006: 9-10) who declares that discourse constitutes "the social construction of the reality". In his opinion, discourse forms and is formed by reality, and results in texts which are perceived as communicative units embedded in cultural and social practices. In fact, as Phillips et al. (2004: 636) put it, discourses are "structured collections of meaningful texts". In using the term 'text', we refer not only to written transcriptions, but, as Taylor and van Every (1993: 109) claim, to "any kind of symbolic expression requiring a physical medium and permitting of permanent storage", which consequently make texts accessible to people. The term itself is used with reference to both spoken and written language, resulting in verbal and printed record, respectively. Due to the prevalence of texts, we are able to examine and explore discourses arising in various domains of our lives. As Labocha (1997: 31), following Ricoeur (1989: 75), points out, discourse can be defined as the event generating a text. The author (Labocha 1996: 51) considers discourse as a strategy applied in the process of text construction and expression, and subsequently assumes that cultural and social patterns constitute the basis of that strategy, which results in a specific text or utterance type.

Further significant reflection on discourse comes from Duszak (1998: 198), who notes that people, while functioning in a society, encounter other people and other texts. They also exhibit permanent readiness to send and receive communicative messages, whereas their participation in communicative processes is adjusted to variable needs and com-

municative reality. People possess a natural tendency to group together, which stems from their innate sense of belonging. As such, they can participate in various domains of life established by social groups formed on the grounds of common cultural values, beliefs, interests or the same social strata, which give rise to discourse communities, a term coined by Swales (1990, as cited in Duszak 1998: 253-257). The author formulates two basic parameters which identify his concept of discourse community, i.e. public goals and genres. As Duszak (1998: 256) stresses, the notion in question enables one to analyze features of particular types of textual events within the human peculiarities. A discourse community is characterized by the fact that it generates its own idiosyncratic linguistic behaviors for the purpose of achieving its goals: "[a] discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims" (Swales 1992: 26). Swales' remarks are in line with the considerations of Z. Wąsik (2011: 54), who puts great emphasis on the value of discursive communities defined as societal ecosystems:

> While focusing on communicative selves who aggregate into particular ecosystems located at various levels of group stratifications, one may study their behavior as semiotic properties of individuals and collectivities determined by the interrelationships of affinity, ethnicity, occupation, political and economic status, etc. Thus, on account of various forms of interactions, the societal ecosystems in question might be examined within the scope of the so-called ecology of discursive communities in relation to their constitutive elements as parts of linkage systems, individuals playing certain roles of participants in group communication, nonverbal and verbal means, channels and communicational settings.

The domains of human life-world can be treated as the determinants of the typology of discourse. Thus, we may encounter discourse of the city, mass media discourse, legal discourse, political discourse, pedagogic discourse, medical discourse, academic discourse, business discourse, etc. All types of discourse arise from the domains of life within which people aggregate and produce texts, both spoken and written.

The field of linguistics known as discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. Weiyun He (2001: 428) observes that "discourse analysis is concerned with the contexts in and the processes through which we use oral and written language to specific audiences, for specific purposes, in specific settings." She further explains that what distinguishes discourse analysis from other domains of linguistic inquiry is that it goes beyond a self-contained system of symbols to focus on discourse as a mode of doing, being, and becoming. In that sense, discourse analysis's concern may seem far broader and more elusive than that of other domains of linguistics; i.e. it seeks to describe and explain linguistic phenomena in terms of

the affective, cognitive, situational and cultural contexts of their use, which signifies that it brings to linguistics and related disciplines a human dimension by focusing on language as it is used by real people with real intentions, emotions and purposes. According to Trappes-Lomax (2004: 151), discourse analysis figures prominently in areas of applied linguistics related to language and education. Its origins can be traced back to the 1960s and 1970s, when it developed from the work of linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology. It is not only interested in the description and analysis of spoken interaction, but also in the written texts of all kinds.

According to McCarthy (1991: 7), discourse analysis has developed into a wide-ranging heterogeneous discipline which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts and cultural influences which affect language in use. Nowadays, it provides a backdrop for research in applied linguistics as well as second language learning and teaching. Vast as it seems, it is one of the least defined areas in linguistics. Researchers, attempting to define the term discourse, put emphasis on its interactive nature and the importance of the context of its use. Schegloff (1982: 73), for example, treats discourse as an interactive achievement, which gradually escalates and does not constitute the realization of one of the interlocutors' communicative intention. Van Dijk and Kintsch (1983: 264) perceive discourse as the planning and carrying out of various actions occurring within the socio-cultural regulation of communicative interaction. With regard to their view of discourse as a social activity, they further emphasize the need to implement the concept of strategy into discourse analysis. The interlocutors, monitoring the changing states of one another, apply various strategies in order to control the course of discourse interaction. These strategies are socially structured ways of achieving discourse coherence. Many authors assume discourse to be characterized by the two following features: cohesion between sentence constituents and coherence within the utterance sequences combined by their underlying meaning (see section 1.1.). As Halliday and Hasan (1976, as cited in Shugar 1995: 19) point out, the former term refers to specific grammatical links ensuring semantic cohesion. The latter concerns any form of unity such as semantic, syntactic, pragmatic or stylistic (van Dijk and Kintsch 1983: 149).

At this point the question of what gives discourse its unity arises. If we are to find the answer to the above issue, we need to look beyond the formal rules regulating sentences and take a closer look at the people who use language and the setting of the communication, that is, its context. Nunan (1993: 7–8) emphasizes the importance of context in discourse analysis and states that it "refers to the situation giving rise to the discourse, and

within which the discourse is embedded." He distinguishes two different types of context. Firstly, the linguistic context – the language that surrounds or accompanies the piece of discourse under analysis. Secondly, the non-linguistic or experiential context within which the discourse takes place, and which includes the type of communicative event, the topic, the purpose of the event, the setting, time of day, the physical aspects of the situation, the participants and the relationships between them, and the background knowledge and assumptions underlying the communicative event.

It is now that seems reasonable to present the notion of discourse from the point of view of linguistics. Two paradigms, namely formalism and functionalism, as Schiffrin (1994) notices, provide different assumptions about the general nature of language, the goals of linguistics, the methods for studying language, and the nature of data and empirical evidence. They also influence the definitions of discourse and are partially responsible for the tremendous scope of discourse analysis. Within the formalist paradigm (Newmeyer 1983), discourse is viewed as "sentences" or as a particular unit of language above the sentence, whereas within the functionalist paradigm (Halliday 1973) – as "language use." The two paradigms are labeled differently. The formalist is similar to what Hymes (1974) describes as the structuralist paradigm and Hopper (1988) calls a priori grammar. The functionalist, on the other hand, corresponds to what Hopper perceives as emergent. Both perspectives clearly have different perceptions with regard to the nature of language and the mechanism of its acquisition. Leech (1983: 46) identifies the differences between formalism and functionalism. First of all, formalists tend to perceive language as a mental phenomenon, whereas functionalists tend to regard it primarily as a societal phenomenon. Secondly, formalists explain children's acquisition of language in terms of a built-in human capacity to learn a language. Functionalists, on the other hand, explain it in terms of the development of the child's communicative needs and abilities in society. Thirdly, formalists study language as an autonomous system, whereas functionalists study it in relation to its social function.

As can be seen, formalists put emphasis on the inner aspects of the language system, while functionalists draw attention to the external functions of language performed in the social context. In Schiffrin's (1994: 22) view, functionalism assumes that external functions of language influence the internal organization of the linguistic system, which contrasts sharply with formalists' view, who argue that although language may have social and cognitive functions, they do not impinge upon the internal organization of language.

The definitions of discourse resulting from the assumptions of the two paradigms will be presented in the following sections. Further, we will illustrate an alternative definition proposed by Schiffrin (1994) that bridges the gap between formalists' and functionalists' contrasting views.

1.2.1. A formalist view of discourse

Formalists define discourse as "language above the sentence or above the clause" (Stubbs 1983: 1). Van Dijk (1985: 4) observes that "structural descriptions characterize discourse at several levels or dimensions of analysis and in terms of many different units, categories, schematic patterns, or relations." He further adds that although they focus on relations between different units, they neglect "the functional relations with the context of which discourse is a part." Z. S. Harris (1951), who was the first to refer to discourse analysis, posited that discourse was the next level in the hierarchy of morphemes, clauses, and sentences. Structure was so fundamental to his concept of discourse that he viewed it as a combination of segments which occur and recur relative to each other. His approach put discourse in opposition to a random sequence of sentences.

The structural approach, as Schiffrin (1994: 24) notes, in spite of its numerous modifications, has come in for criticism, mainly due to the fact that it is comprised of units. Moreover, it does not take into account data obtained from context, speakers and meanings. While Harris's unit was the morpheme and its combination into sentences, subsequent approaches favored the clause (e.g. Linde and Labov 1975), the proposition (e.g. Grimes 1975, Mann and Thompson 1988) or the sentence as the units of which discourse was comprised. Other structural approaches aim at multi-based or diversified units, e.g. Polanyi (1988) proposes structures to be comprised of varied units such as sentences, turns, speech actions and speech events. However, contemporary formalist approaches perceive discourse as a level of structure higher than the sentence leading to analyses of constituents that occur in particular relations to one another in a text and in a restricted set of text level arrangements (Schiffrin 1994: 31).

1.2.2. A functionalist view of discourse

Functionalists perceive discourse as "the study of any aspect of language use" (Fasold 1990: 65). G. Brown and Yule (1983:1) add that the analysis of discourse "cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs." Their approach focuses on the importance of the purposes and functions of language in human life, which constitute a vital part of the analysis of language use. Functionalism considers discourse as a system – a socially and culturally organized way of speaking, through which certain functions are fulfilled. Fairclough (1989) maintains that language and society partially comprise of one another and therefore one cannot analyze language as an autonomous system as formalists do. Schiffrin (1994: 31) observes that even less extreme functionalist views perceive discourse as "interdependent with social life, such that its analysis necessarily intersects with meanings, activities, and systems outside of itself." The functionalist definition diverts analysts' attention from the structural basis of formal regularities to the way patterns of communication are used for certain purposes and in particular contexts and how they emerge from the application of communicative strategies.

Schiffrin (1994: 32) states that functional analyses may start from one of two directions which correspond to the distinction made by linguists and anthropologists (e.g. Pike 1967) between etic and emic approaches. If one follows an etic direction in functional analyses, the functions performed by the language are defined and further particular units (utterances or actions) are matched to those functions. The emic approach, on the other hand, begins with the observation and description of an utterance itself, which, on the basis of its analysis, leads to determining what functions are being served by that utterance. The inferences made in the emic approach are not totally ad hoc, but, as Schiffrin (1994: 33) notices, they do differ from the etic approaches, "because they are not as wed to the notion of system, and because they are more open to the discovery of unanticipated uses of language."

To conclude, a functionalist definition of discourse embraces all language use, assuming an interrelationship between language and context. It views discourse as a socially and culturally organized way of speaking, focusing on functions that include tasks such as establishing social rapport and maintaining interaction. Functional analyses reveal the way people convey "the unintended social, cultural and expressive meanings" rather than "the way people intend what they say to serve referential meanings;" that is, to convey proposi-

tional information (Schiffrin 1994: 39). However, this view of discourse does not take into account the analysis of relationships between utterances.

Schiffrin (1994: 42) summarizes the assumptions resulting from the formal and functional paradigms and states that while focusing on structure, our task is to identify and analyze constituents; determine procedures for assigning to utterances a constituent status; discover regularities underlying combinations of constituents; and make principled decisions about whether or not particular arrangements are well formed. If, on the other hand, we focus on function, our task is to identify and analyze actions performed by people for certain purposes; interpret social, cultural, and personal meanings; and justify our interpretation of those meanings for the participants involved.

1.2.3. Discourse as utterances

The two previously presented definitions of discourse resulting from contrasting paradigms force us to search for an explanation of the term that would prevent us from following either a strong formalist or functionalist approach. For this purpose, Schiffrin (1994) proposes an alternative definition of discourse which bridges the gap between formalist and functionalist assumptions and perceives discourse as utterances. Her view stipulates that discourse is "above" other units of language and is comprised not of decontextualized units of language structure, but rather "a collection of inherently contextualized units of language use" (Schiffrin 1994: 39).

However, the main problem arising from this definition is that the notion of "utterance" is not all that clear and that it perceives discourse at a higher level than utterances, as realization of sentences. Some linguists view sentences and utterances as radically different from each other; e.g. Fasold (1990) believes that utterances do not need grammatical support at all, that is, they may or may not comply with grammatical rules, whereas sentences are abstract objects that may never actually be realized. Yet, Schiffrin points out that this view of discourse has certain advantages. Firstly, if we define discourse as utterances, we attend to the contextualization of language structure in a way going beyond Lyons's (1977) notion of text-sentence to what we might call context-sentence. Secondly, since this definition takes into account more than one utterance, extended patterns, as well as sequential arrangements, automatically come under scrutiny. In this way, defining discourse as utter-

ances seems to balance both the formal emphasis on constituents and regularities underlying their combinations, and the functional focus on how language is used in context.

The definition of discourse as utterances implies several goals of discourse analysis. Firstly, the syntactic goals (sequential goals), which raise the question of the principles underlying the order in which one utterance follows another. Secondly, the semantic and pragmatic goals, which refer to the issue of how the organization of discourse, and the meaning and use of particular expressions and constructions within certain contexts enable people to convey and interpret the communicative content of what is said. Furthermore, they address the issue of how one utterance influences the communicative content of another.

Having defined the nature of discourse, let us proceed to the next section, which will address the issue of the approaches to discourse analysis.

1.3. Approaches to discourse analysis

In this section we will introduce, following Schiffrin (1994), several basic issues that underlie the description of and comparison among the different approaches to discourse analysis. The first approach, known as speech act approach, developed by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) focuses on communicative acts performed through speech as well as upon knowledge of underlying conditions for the production and interpretation of acts through words. It stems from the conviction that language is used not only to describe the world, but also to perform a range of other actions that can be indicated in the performance of the utterance itself. It assumes that words may perform more than one action at a time and these are the contexts that may help to separate multiple functions of utterances from one another. Initially, the speech act theory was not developed as a means of analyzing discourse. However, particular issues tackled by the theory, e.g. the issue of indirect speech acts, multifunctionality and context dependence paved the way for discourse analysis. The approach provides a means by which to segment texts and, consequently, a framework for defining units that could further be combined into larger structures.

As observed by Schiffrin (1994: 7), discourse analysis shares a great deal with other disciplines such as anthropology, sociology, and linguistics. The approach that finds its origins in these fields is called the interactional approach (Gumperz 1982). It is concerned

with the way people of different cultural backgrounds, in spite of sharing grammatical knowledge of language, contextualize differently what is said, leading to the production of different messages. Based on the assumption that interlocutors draw inferences about one another's intent, it emphasizes a wide scope of those inferences and the vast array of verbal and nonverbal cues that form their basis and that belong to cultural repertoires for signaling meaning. It also focuses on the place of language in particular circumstances of social life and how it reflects different types of meaning and structure under those circumstances. Concentrating upon actual utterances in social context, it draws its attention to the way interpretation and interaction rely upon the interrelationship of social and linguistic meanings.

The ethnography of communication approach has its roots in anthropology, with which it shares an interest in holistic explanations of meaning and behavior. It requires extensive fieldwork within the community and comparisons between communities. Hymes' (1974) challenge to Chomsky's (1965) concept of linguistic competence (see section 1.1.) provided an incentive to the approach. It followed that it was not enough to know the abstract rules of language as Chomsky proposed. Instead, tacit knowledge of social, psychological, cultural and linguistic norms governing the appropriate use of language became significant. The status of any particular act can be established on the basis of a combination of more general meanings, beliefs and values that exceed the knowledge of grammar of a particular language. The proposed concept of communicative competence (see section 1.1.) constitutes an aspect of our general competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages, and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts. Therefore, it embraces the knowledge and the ability of how to engage and function in conversation as well as other culturally constructed speech events. Canale and Swain (1980: 17) notice that a major aspect of the ethnography of speaking is the analysis of speech events in terms of their constitutive components. These are: participants (e.g. speaker and hearer, sender and receiver), setting (i.e. physical time and place), scene (e.g. psychological or cultural setting), the actual form of a message (i.e. a linguistic description of a message), topic (i.e. what the message is about), purpose (i.e. goal, intention), key (e.g. serious, mock), channel (e.g. oral, written), code (i.e. language or variety within a language), norms of interaction (e.g. physical distance between participants), norms of interpretation (i.e. how different norms of interaction or violations of them are interpreted), and genre (e.g. casual speech). These components of speech events are essential for the formulation of the rules of language use and for the analysis of the social meaning of utterances.

A pragmatic approach to discourse stems from the philosophical ideas of Grice (1975), who is mainly concerned with the relationship between logic and conversation. He proposes distinctions between different types of meaning and maintains that general maxims of cooperation provide inferential routes to a speaker's communicative intention. The added meanings that utterances seem to contain are defined as implicatures, which are due to the cooperative principle underlying communication. The principle, according to Grice (1975: 46), consists of four specific maxims: quantity (i.e. make your contributions as informative as is required), quality (i.e. try to make your contribution one that is true), relation (i.e. be relevant) and manner (i.e. be perspicuous). Schiffrin (1994: 194) notes that these maxims derive not from the nature of conversation itself, but from the fact that talking, as Grice (1975: 47) puts it, is "a special case or variety of purposive, indeed rational, behavior." Gricean pragmatics implies that people communicate with impoverished assumptions about one another, which they use as the basis from which to draw highly specific inferences about one another's intended meanings.

Conversation analysis, rather than analyzing the social order itself, attempts to discover the methods by which members of a society produce a sense of social order. The approach assumes conversation to be a source of much of our sense of social order as it embodies our notions of social role. Furthermore, conversation manifests its own kind of order and a sense of structure. The main concerns of conversation analysis were expressed by a sociologist, Garfinkel (1967), who developed the approach known as ethnomethodology, further applied to conversation by Sacks et al. (1974). McCarthy (1991: 6) observes that much of American discourse analysis has been dominated by ethnomethodological tradition with its emphasis on close observation of groups of people communicating in natural settings. This type of analysis focuses not so much on building structural models, as on sequential structures in conversation, the patterns which recur over a wide range of natural data, turn-taking mechanism and other aspects of spoken interaction. Schiffrin (1994: 10) adds that conversation analysis is closely related to interactional sociolinguistics in its concern with the problem of social order, and how language both creates and is constructed by social context. However, unlike interactional sociolinguistics's willingness to judge participants' interpretation and intent with the support of contextual information, conversation analysts aim at finding out generalizations about context – social conduct and social life – within the progression of utterances themselves.

Finally, as discussed by Schiffrin (1994: 10), the variationist approach to discourse emerged from the studies of linguistic variation and change. Variationist studies assume

that linguistic variation (i.e. heterogeneity) is shaped both socially and linguistically, and that the patterns which unfold can be discovered only due to the systematic investigation of a speech community. The discovery of such patterns in texts (often narratives) and the analysis of how such patterns are constrained by the text constitute a vital part of the variationist approach. The approach, as such, utilizes some of the basic tools of linguistic analysis; i.e. it segments texts into sections, labels those sections as part of a structure, and finally assigns functions to those sections. As a result, as stated by Schiffrin (1994: 11), the variationist approach allows more context independence than would be provided in interactional sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication or conversation analysis.

1.4. Educational discourse in EFL classroom

Bearing in mind the different approaches to discourse, we are going to focus on the discourse set in the context significant for the present dissertation. As such, the following sections will address the issue of educational discourse found in an EFL domain. Emphasis will be put on the nature of classroom discourse as well as on what differentiates it from the discourse occurring in a naturalistic setting. Further, we will discuss goals, structure and types of classroom discourse, and the research findings gathered in Poland in this domain.

1.4.1. Classroom discourse

We can observe an important shift in the conception of educational discourse, which is based on the transition from linguistic education to educational linguistics (also known as pedagogic linguistics), a term coined in the early 1970s by Bernard Spolsky (1974). As Hult (2008: 10) notes, "educational linguistics is an area of study that integrates the research tools of linguistics and other related disciplines of the social sciences in order to investigate holistically the broad range of issues related to language and education". The discipline in question has developed a unique niche in its directed focus on language and education. According to Rittel (2001: 17), educational linguistics deals with linguistic facts, which are educationally motivated and patterned within the educational discourse. It attempts to discern peculiar interrelations between language and education, which is subse-

quently followed by the generation of patterns of the interpreted linguistic material that can be used by educational linguistics.

Discourse that is used in a pedagogic context involves studies of speech events and exchanges occurring between teachers and students. Yet, according to Labocha (1997: 35), educational discourse embraces all kinds of didactic texts, both spoken and written, such as educational television programs, coursebooks or seminars. The author further adds that it is the acquisition of knowledge rather than the knowledge itself that constitutes the communicative aim of educational discourse. As Chimombo and Roseberry (1998: 198) observe, "to study the language of the classroom is to study both the learning processes and some of the internal and external constraints upon it." Classroom discourse is mainly perceived as a dialogue between the teacher and students, which, as Kawka (1999: 27) puts it, is based on developing mutual understanding and communicative space between its participants. Within the field of speech events between teachers and students, there appear the following terms: classroom discourse, didactic discourse and pedagogic discourse (B. Bernstein 1990). As far as the stages of education are concerned, as Przewłocka (2002: 114) points out, we may differentiate between kindergarten, school and academic discourse. Researchers emphasize the fact that classroom discourse deserves being studied like any other discourse genre, and, according to McDermott and Tylbor (1986: 123), the school is one of the "culturally most well-formulated" contexts for language use. Artificial as classroom discourse may seem, one cannot gloss over the fact that it has enjoyed a tradition lasting at least four decades. Niżegorodcew (2007: 39) points out that during that period, L2 classroom discourse has undergone a thorough analysis in terms of its structure, functions and its role in L2 learning and acquisition.

We can characterize classroom discourse by taking into account its pragmatic, social and psychological conditions. In that case, according to Kawka (1999: 28 –29), it has the following features:

- it takes place in a strictly predetermined social environment, where the linguistic roles are invariably divided between the teacher and the learner;
- it entails a whole array of social, physical and psychological factors related to the sender and addressee of the message;
- it has a broad communicative background;
- it has a more or less stable temporal and spatial parameters;

- it has permanent pragmatic contexts resulting from the utterance's circumstances and intention, which are constituted by the unchanging participants, the topic of the lesson, and ritualized behaviors and roles.

Guzik (2003: 38) raises the issue of what determines the performance of discourse (Pol.: "efektywność dyskursu"). In her opinion, the teacher's role is of paramount importance as well as his/her personality, competence and ability to maintain contact with learners. These qualities all influence the nature and the course of discourse. Pawlak (2004: 59), following K. E. Johnson (1996), is of a similar opinion and states that "the nature of classroom discourse is bound to vary depending on teachers' personal and professional knowledge about teaching, learning and the classroom context, their theoretical beliefs as well as understanding of their teaching experiences, all of which contribute to the formation of a unique teaching style." However, one cannot ignore the learners in this respect. They are considered not only as participants, but also as the interpreters of classroom discourse. Heckman (1987: 65) reports on longitudinal research in a school system, where the shift in perception of the student's role has been observed, from that of merely a passive recipient of the teacher's knowledge to that of the participant:

> Today (…) [the teacher] often uses cooperative learning strategies that reflect her changed perspective. Some students teach other students; others ask for help from peers. The teacher clarifies and supports group activities. The student has become a worker, not merely a passive listener. (Heckman 1987: 66 –67)

Early educational discourse studies focused on the differences between the nature of communication in the classroom and that of interaction in the naturalistic setting. They have been motivated by the existing studies on interactive discourse between native- and non-native speakers. The following section will illustrate the main discrepancies between the two communicative settings.

1.4.2. Differences between discourse in naturalistic and instructional setting

The potential of classroom discourse for L2 development is a contentious issue. There are researchers (e.g. Gremmo et al. 1978), who view such discourse as a distorted interaction and therefore are pessimistic as far as the benefits it may bring for L2 development. Others, including Ellis (1984), maintain that L2 classroom discourse is propitious for L2 learn-

ing/acquisition. Some researchers (e.g. Fathman 1978) are of the opinion that one way of enriching the acquisition environment in the language classroom is by making the educational discourse mirror the language used in out-of-class communication. On the other hand, there are those who believe in the potential of formal instruction, which is, in their opinion, conducive to the facilitation of language learning and leads to a higher level of accuracy. However, van Lier (1984) urges that we should not expect classroom interaction to be an ideal imitation of natural communication.

L2 classroom discourse differs from naturalistic discourse with regard to three main aspects. First of all, the L2 teacher plays the role of the manager of classroom discourse, which results from the unequal distribution of power between the teacher and learners. Secondly, as observed by Niżegorodcew (2007: 47) following Majer and Majer (1996), the L2 teacher, assisted by teaching materials, is the main provider of L2 input, which, apart from the educational value, helps him/her to perform the already mentioned managerial role. Finally, as opposed to general conversations, communicative intentions in classroom discourse are under the influence of the complex and rigid framework of norms imposed by the school context as well as curriculum and task demands, affording fewer opportunities for negotiation of meaning.

As Niżegorodcew (2007: 40) notices, managing behaviors in naturalistic contexts are mostly focused on negotiation of meanings in moment-to-moment interaction. On the other hand, classroom communication tends to be dominated by the display and evaluation of learners' knowledge rather than negotiated interaction. The managerial role of the teacher has been investigated from the point of view of the following features: the amount of teacher talking time in comparison with student talking time, repetitions, modifications and simplifications in the use of syntactic patterns, vocabulary and phonological features, rate of speech, use of metatalk, pausing phenomena (including wait time and use of fillers) and teacher's use of L1. This role manifests itself in the teacher's dominance in the amount of classroom talk as well as unequal patterns of participation. Data from Flanders (1970) show that 70% of classroom talk is occupied by teacher talking time – a fact which has come in for a lot of criticism recently. Participation patterns in the L2 classroom discourse are affected by the unequal distribution of power (Larsen-Freeman 1980, Pica 1987, as cited in Niżegorodcew 2007: 45) and by the roles played by L2 teachers and learners (Zawadzka 2004, as cited in Niżegorodcew 2007: 45). McCarthy (2001: 100, as cited in Majer 2003: 41), following Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Coulthard (1977), identifies the institutionalized roles played by participants of educational discourse and presents the teacher as

knower and source of input, as evaluator of pupil response and as controller of topics, and the pupils as receptors and respondents, communicating with the teacher, not their peers.

Coulthard (1977: 105) argues that special nature of classroom interaction results from the "asymmetrical status relationships" of the participants:

> Verbal interaction inside the classroom differs markedly from desultory conversation in that its main purpose is to instruct and inform and this difference is reflected in the structure of the discourse. In conversation topic changes are unpredictable and uncontrollable (…). Inside the classroom it is one of the functions of the teacher to choose the topic, decide how it will be subdivided into smaller units and cope with digressions and misunderstandings. (Coulthard 1977: 101).

Teachers have great power and unlimited participation rights. Van Lier (1984: 163) compares the privileged position of the teacher to a "supreme ruler" of discourse, the one who manages and controls communication. Teachers determine the topic of a conversation and, by exercising tight control over turn-taking mechanism, they hold responsibility for the whole structure of teaching cycles, and the relevance and correctness of learners' output. They can interrupt their turns, comment on them and correct their utterances. By and large, teachers are granted conversational control over who speaks to whom and when. As McHoul (1978) and Sinclair and Brazil (1982) notice, there is a rigid allocation of turns which evinces itself in the fact that the turn-taking is under the strict teacher's control.

On the other hand, turn-taking mechanism prevailing in interactions between native speakers in the naturalistic setting is characterized by self-regulated competition and initiative (Sacks et al. 1974; Gaskill 1980). Participants of such interactions enjoy equal status and rights. They have, according to Pawlak (2004: 54), "the right to contribute to the ongoing interaction in a variety of ways such as competing for the floor, self-selecting, elaborating on a given topic or introducing a new one." Therefore, the author defines most instructional settings as "highly-constrained speech-exchange systems" (Pawlak 2004: 54). The fact that the turn-taking mechanism is under strict control makes classroom discourse proceed in a pre-arranged direction, being deprived of negotiation, competition and initiative. Such a state of affairs prevents genuine communication from taking place and impedes the development of communicative competence. The peculiar power relations of classroom discourse influence the quality of classroom interaction, which in Pica's (1987: 10) opinion, is unidirectional – from the teacher to students: "Classroom discourse (…) is not oriented towards a two-way flow of information, aimed at mutual comprehension, but rather, a one-way display (...). Communication is not shared equally among all classroom

interlocutors. Instead, it is channeled through the teacher, who first elicits and then evaluates students' production." Under such circumstances, students have very few opportunities to be involved in the negotiation of form and meaning.

Another difference between discourse in naturalistic and instructional settings refers to the L2 teacher's role as the provider of planned L2 input. Niżegorodcew (2007: 41) observes that input in a naturalistic interaction is of a spontaneous character and is generated in response to the speakers' communicative needs, whereas in the L2 classroom it is predesigned by the syllabus, the authors of the teaching materials, and L2 teachers themselves as they plan their lessons. Therefore, L2 classroom discourse is much more planned than naturalistic discourse (Ellis 1994).

L2 teacher talk has been compared to the language used by native speakers while addressing non-native speakers, which is defined as foreigner talk (Ellis 1994). While discussing differences between the two, Henzl (1973, 1979) points to L2 teacher talk's grammatical well-formedness as opposed to ungrammatical foreigner talk. Furthermore, L2 teachers use special teaching strategies identified by Gaies (1977), which include repeating one's own questions, repeating and expanding learners' answers (known as recasts), and prompting answers. All of them seem to be supportive of learners' L2 comprehension and production as well as classroom management. However, Chimombo and Roseberry (1998: 220 –221) notice a significant difference between teacher talk and natural communication, which they define as "enormous amount of redundancy resulting from teachers repeating their own questions, the students answering these questions in full sentences without the normal substitution and ellipsis of everyday conversation, (…)." They blame language teachers for requiring their learners to respond with full sentences, neglecting the normal communicative use of substitution and ellipsis to reply to questions.

Pawlak (2004: 56) posits that teacher talk seems to deviate from foreigner talk in terms of the frequency of occurrence of discourse modifications and the functional allocation of language choice. In comparison with conversations in a naturalistic setting, the amount of negotiation in the classroom is significantly smaller with the exception of comprehension checks, which, as observed by Pica and Long (1986), are frequently used by language teachers as a controlling device to make sure that the input they provide is tailored for their learners' needs and level. The low incidence of the negotiation of meaning seems to be related to the fact that classroom discourse is occupied by more display rather than referential questions (Long and Sato 1983; Pica and Long 1986), which provides another manifestation of the asymmetrical power relationships. As for the functional distribution of

linguistic features, Long and Sato (1983) report that teacher talk contains significantly more statements, more directives and fewer questions than foreigner talk, and posit that this may be related to the pedagogical purposes of imperatives and declaratives. Pawlak (2004: 56) puts forward the hypothesis that it is teacher talk rather than foreigner talk that may be less conducive to language development because of its paucity of referential questions and fewer opportunities for the negotiation of meaning.

The third main difference between classroom and naturalistic discourse refers to the communicative intentions of the speakers. In naturalistic discourse, speakers have genuine communicative intentions, whereas learners and teachers in L2 classroom discourse are limited by, what McTear (1975) calls, pseudocommunicative intentions. That means that their interaction focuses on communication ingrained in the framework of the school, the L2 teaching syllabus and the learning tasks. Therefore, educational processes are limited by their rules, purposes and procedures.

There is one more aspect of communication that differentiates the two settings under discussion, namely the provision and organization of repair. Error correction has been shown to be ubiquitous in the language classroom with a great predominance of other-initiated other-completed repair. This type of repair is avoided in non-pedagogic interaction due to the grave social consequences it might result in. Schegloff et al. (1977, as cited in Pawlak 2004: 56) maintain that conversations between native speakers of English are characterized by a tendency towards self-initiated self-repair. Other-initiated self-repair might also occur with a confirmation check or a clarification request being preceded by a pause indicating the interlocutor's uncertainty. What follows is that communicative breakdowns arising in the language classroom are not dealt with in exactly the same way as those occurring in a naturalistic setting, resulting from learners' insufficient communicative competence which does not yet enable them to convey all of their messages and negotiate meaning.

1.4.3. Goals, structure and types of classroom discourse

The verbal interaction that occurs in the classroom has attracted a great deal of attention from researchers. They agree that learners' production depends, among other factors, on the interactional goals pursued both by the teacher and the class. Ellis (1988, as cited in Majer 2003: 220) distinguishes three major goals that stimulate and reflect classroom interaction

and discourse. The first type is known as core goals – which relate to the explicit purposes of the lesson. Butzkamm and Dodson (1980, as cited in Majer 2003: 221) recognize three subtypes of core goals, namely: medium-oriented, message-oriented, and activity-oriented. Medium-oriented goals refer to the main goal of the lesson; that is, teaching specific aspects of the L2. Message-oriented goals are concerned with content-area teaching and attempt to combine the learning of some content-area subject with the learning of a foreign language. However, core goals are mainly pursued in the classroom through medium-oriented goals; that is, whenever the teacher's main objective is teaching the target language (Butzkamm and Dodson 1980). The second type of interactional goals distinguished by Ellis falls under the category of framework goals. These pertain to the general management of lessons and are achieved by the use of organizational language, full of directives and procedural interrogatives. Finally, there are social goals, which refer to more personal purposes such as disciplining or praising particular students. Ellis (1988: 126) states that by pursuing those goals students socialize as well as learn. He also notices that L2 classroom discourse resembles more naturalistic discourse if it is focused on the framework and social goals. However, as Majer (2003: 229) observes, interactional goals related to the framework of language pedagogy are typically attained via L1 in monolingual classrooms where the teacher and learners share the mother tongue.

Since the 1960s analysts of educational discourse have investigated the structure of the pedagogic interaction aiming at the identification of the levels of this discourse genre. The earliest system for the analysis of classroom discourse was developed by Bellack et al. (1966), who identified four specific moves: structure, solicit, respond, and react. They believe that teachers follow these moves recursively throughout the lessons. The structuring move is initiatory in nature and establishes the context for classroom behavior by launching or halting teacher-pupil interactions. In other words, a structuring move typically marks topic shifts, and usually there is only one such move at the beginning of a sequence, in which other moves recur. The moves that tend to occur recursively are soliciting, responding, and reacting. A soliciting move aims at eliciting a verbal, cognitive, or physical response from the person addressed. Responding moves, which usually constitute learners' answers to teachers' questions, bear a reciprocal relationship to soliciting moves and occur only in relation to them. Reacting moves are occasioned by a structuring, soliciting, responding or prior reacting move, but are not directly elicited by them. They take the form of some kind of evaluation, clarification, or elaboration on a previous speaker's contribution.

Therefore, reciprocal relationships among moves in Bellack et al.'s analysis are perceived in terms of the structure of the discourse rather than the topic.

A decade later, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) proposed one of the most influential systems for classroom discourse analysis. Although their data collection fields were limited to content-area classrooms of 8-year-old learners (the majority of whom were immigrant children with limited English proficiency), they created a descriptive model of educational discourse structure. Having found that the structure was highly organized, they applied a rank scale for capturing all levels of teacher-learners' interaction. What is unique about their model is its hierarchical character. As they point out (Sinclair and Coulthard 1992: 2), following Halliday (1961), "[t]he basic assumption of a rank scale is that a unit at a given rank, (…), is made up of one or more units of the rank below, (…), and combines with other units at the same rank to make one unit at the rank above, (…)." In such a case, the unit at the lowest rank has no structure. Sinclair and Coulthard used the following ranks: act, move, exchange, transaction, and lesson. Therefore, as stated by Larsen-Freeman (1980: 19), each of the five ranks "exists in a 'consist of' relationship with the one above". Such a hierarchical system enables researchers to analyze discourse in terms of its functions which are reflected in its structure. The lessons, which constitute the highest rank, include transactions, which include exchanges made up of moves, including acts. The transactions include preliminary, medial and terminal exchanges. Preliminary and terminal exchanges are concerned with boundaries between transactions, while medial exchanges concern teaching. Each transaction within the lesson is explicitly signaled by a 'framing' move represented by markers such as "well, OK, right, now, good, [or] all right" (Sinclair and Coulthard 1992: 17):

> Frames, especially those at the beginning of a lesson, are frequently followed by a special kind of statement, the function of which is to tell the class what is going to happen. These items are not strictly part of the discourse, but rather metastatements about the discourse – we call them focus. The boundary elements, frame and focus, were the first positive evidence of the existence of a unit above exchange, which we later labeled transaction. (Sinclair and Coulthard 1992: 3)

However, it is at the level of exchanges that classroom discourse has received a great deal of attention from Sinclair and Coulthard. They found that, unlike normal conversations, where exchanges are usually made up of two moves, i.e. a question followed by an answer, the majority of classroom exchanges are made up of three moves: I, an initiation by the teacher; R, which stands for a response from the pupil; and F, the teacher gives evalua-

tive feedback. Van Lier (1984: 160) estimates that the so called triadic IRF exchange may account for roughly half the interaction in a traditional, teacher-centered language classroom. Interactions dominated by the IRF cycles reflect the unequal distribution of power between the teacher and learners and seem to hardly be in accordance with the assumptions of the communicative language teaching approach (Dinsmore 1985: 227). However, the IRF cycle pertains not only to foreign language classrooms, it is even more characteristic of content classroom discourse. Coulthard (1977: 103) explains:

> It is suggested that the three-move eliciting structure is the normal form inside the classroom for two reasons: firstly, answers directed to the teacher are difficult for others to hear and thus the repetition when it occurs may be the first chance some children have to hear what their colleague said; secondly, and more importantly, a distinguishing feature of classroom discourse is that many of the questions asked are ones to which the questioner already knows the answer and the intention is to discover whether the pupils also know. Often answers which are 'correct' in terms of the question are not the ones the teacher is seeking and, therefore, it is essential for the teacher to provide feedback to indicate whether a particular answer was the one he was looking for.

As Devitt (1989: 23) notices, this type of discourse is almost ritualistic in structure. It usually happens that very tightly defined exchanges are allowed and the range of speech acts that learners can perform is limited. However, McTear (1975) claims that FL classroom discourse analyzed according to Sinclair and Coulthard's model of content-area classroom discourse, has a typical four-phase rather than three-phase structure. He adds the fourth phase, when the learner repeats the teacher's correction or expansion, so the structure looks as follows: initiating, responding, giving feedback, and repeating. The four-phase structure constitutes the requirement of foreign language practice. Sinclair and Coulthard's model was further elaborated by Sinclair and Brazil (1982). Both of these works show that the structure of educational discourse is shaped mainly by the teacher.

It should be borne in mind that the classroom research studies of the 1960s dealt with content-area teaching via L1, which means that their findings and implications are not directly pertinent to a foreign language instruction setting. An important step forward was taken by Fanselow (1977), who proposed a system developed specifically for describing language learning classrooms. Thus, the study of classroom discourse was moved beyond the L1 subject-matter context to include second language instruction. Fanselow's system, known under the acronym FOCUS, which stands for Foci for Observing Communications Used in Settings, constitutes, as Allwright and Bailey (1991: 11) point out, not only an observation schedule developed with language teacher training in mind, but also a descriptive

system applicable to research on any instance of human interaction. It identifies five categories of classroom interaction: the source (who communicates meaning – the teacher or the student(s)); the medium (whether linguistic, paralinguistic and nonlinguistic); use (whether the goal of communication is to present, to relate, to re-present, to characterize content, or to attend to content); the content (whether referring to the subject matter, classroom procedure, the language itself or the outside world); and the pedagogic purpose of the communication (may seek to structure, to solicit, to respond and to react). As can be seen, the system is based in part on Bellack's et al. (1966) categories. Researchers (e.g. Hatch and Long 1980: 25) maintain that the research methodology developed by Fanselow constitutes a useful observational tool in teacher training and adult ESL classes.

Nunan (1992: 96) observes that over the years numerous observation schemes have been developed for registering classroom interaction. One of the most sophisticated instruments yet invented was the COLT system (Allen et al. 1984, Fröhlich et al. 1985), which stands for Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching. It has been used for observing classroom behaviors and learning outcomes in different second-language programs. Its aim, as stated by Allen et al. (1984: 233), was to enable the observer to describe as accurately as possible "some of the features of communication which occur in second language classrooms" with a view to capturing "significant features of verbal interaction in L2 classrooms" and to providing "a means of comparing some aspects of classroom discourse with natural language as it is used outside the classroom." The instrument has been established in hopes of differentiating communicative language teaching classrooms from those that were more teacher-centered and form-focused. As such, its categories, in the opinion of Fröhlich et al. (1985: 29), were designed "to measure the extent to which an instructional treatment may be characterized as communicatively oriented." COLT consists of two parts: part A, which describes classroom activities in organizational and pedagogic terms, specifically: the activity type, the participant observation, the content, the student modality and the materials; and part B, which analyzes teacher and student verbal interactions, and categorizes them into the following communicative features, i.e. the use of the target language, information gap, sustained speech, reaction to code or message, incorporation of the preceding utterance, discourse initiation, and relative restriction to linguistic code.

The peculiarity of L2 classroom discourse lies in its being simultaneously the content and the medium of instruction – a fact noticed by Willis (1992). According to her, it is this dual role that makes foreign language lessons difficult to describe. By adapting Sinclair and Brazil's (1982) model of "outer" and "inner" discourse structure, she shows that there

can be a transfer from the subject-matter domain to the EFL teaching environment. In her opinion, the above-mentioned model can generally only be used to analyze typical content classrooms, "[i]t preserves the flow of the interaction and reveals its structure, highlighting common patternings and revealing breakdowns" (Willis 1992: 162). Yet, it does not capture the two-level structure of the mainstream language classroom. If we are to produce a transparent description of language classroom discourse structure, it is essential to create a model which differentiates the two uses of language, preserving at the same time the flow of the interaction and displaying the relationship between the two. By the term "outer" structure, Willis, following Sinclair and Brazil (1982: 23), means "a mechanism for controlling and stimulating utterances," and by the term "inner," a mechanism for giving formal practice in the foreign language. The following excerpt from Ellis (1999: 213) provides a summary of the most important differences between the two kinds of discourses:

> Outer language consists of utterances which provide a framework for the lesson, enabling pedagogic activities to take place. Such utterances are produced by both the teacher and the students. Inner language consists of those utterances produced during the course of a pedagogic activity; it is comprised of the samples of language designated as the goal of the activity.

The language of the outer structure is mainly used to socialize, organize, explain and check, and can and does exist on its own, whereas the language in the inner structure consists of the target language forms that have been selected by the teacher as learning goals and do not constitute any coherent discourse on their own. What is worth mentioning is the fact that the outer structure is compatible with the framework goals from Ellis's taxonomy, and that the inner one is analogous to the core goals, which relate to the content of L2 teaching.

The fact that classroom interaction invariably shifts between meaning-oriented and form-focused activities leads to the occurrence of unplanned and planned discourse respectively. As Ellis (1988: 176) observes, we are dealing with a "combination of spontaneous and elicited discourse" in a foreign language instruction. Whereas the former tends to be informal, the latter can be so mechanical that it may involve no meaning focus at all. The distinction between these two types of classroom discourse comes from Givón's (1979) work on syntax and his main argument that syntax is inextricably linked to discourse. Givón identifies two types of language use: loose, paratactic, pragmatic discourse structures and tight, 'grammaticalised' syntactic structures. The former characterizes unplanned discourse; the latter, planned discourse. Givón explains that unplanned discourse occurs under relaxed conditions, and requires monitoring and repair more than planning. In contrast,

planned discourse is characterized by careful planning which involves correction and reformulation. Although Givón's distinction refers mainly to native-speaker speech, it is also applicable to the SLA context and learner speech. Planned discourse involves the kind of speech that has been thoroughly prepared, both content- and languagewise, prior to a given communicative task, while unplanned discourse is totally spontaneous and created ad hoc during a given communicative event. As Ellis (1988: 168) puts it: "[u]nplanned discourse is discourse that lacks forethought and preparation. Planned discourse is discourse that has been thought out and organized prior to expression." Therefore, the output produced in instructional environments fluctuates linguistically, as it constitutes the outcome of participation in discourse and depends on whether learners are involved in planned or unplanned varieties. We may state that the two discussed types of discourse constitute the poles of an interactional continuum rather than a dichotomy.

1.4.4. Research on educational discourse in Poland

Trying to answer the question concerning the significance of classroom discourse goals, levels or types, we are attempting to identify the types of classroom interaction that are conducive to L2 learning and acquisition. Studies of FL classroom interaction and discourse conducted in Poland have provided us with an insight into FL teaching practices and accumulated a wealth of information on the discourse patterns found in the interaction between its participants, namely the teacher and the learners, and on the way they structure their talk. The present section will discuss its main findings and implications.

Let us begin our presentation with studies concerning the educational discourse of content-area instruction in Polish. Kawka (1999) discusses the issue of implicature and presupposition in classroom discourse, illustrating the two phenomena with relevant examples. He also analyzes the ways of imparting knowledge to discourse participants through indirect speech acts. His research fits within the field of pragmatic linguistics and discourse analysis, and conforms to the linguistic trend which deals with the effective use of linguistic forms in concrete social contexts. It also raises the issue of linguistic and non-linguistic mutual adjustments of Polish used in a school setting, particularly during lessons. Kawka attempts to present the nature and the ways of the functioning of educational discourse units and structures, which, in his opinion, enable discourse participants to communicate with one another under certain circumstances, whereas they hinder their communicative

process under others. The above-mentioned units and structures are perceived as verbal interactions undertaken by both the teacher and learners with a predetermined intention, taking into account social, psychological, pragmatic and linguistic contexts typical of such interactions. The author explores the linguistic forms of various speech acts, i.e. questions, the lessons' beginnings and endings, instructions, directives and commands, as well as the role of addressative forms in educational discourse. The recorded and transcribed lessons have been arranged in a thematic and formal order, further interpreted as configurations of educational speech acts, i.e. linguistic forms of educational discourse. The presented findings and implications result from the analysis of educational speech acts, from the use of addressative forms and conversational implicature in the instructional setting, and from the non-verbal, the kinesic and proxemic aspects of communication. The author also provides results of a pragmatic character concerning the efficacy of imparting and acquiring knowledge in educational discourse and the use of linguistic mechanisms, conversational rules and maxims, presuppositions and implicatures constituting indirect speech acts.

Guzik (2003) considers educational discourse as a way of building structuralized knowledge and of acquiring, developing and improving various learners' competencies. She also hints at the fact that educational discourse provides an opportunity to establish appropriate relations between discourse participants. In her opinion (Guzik 2003: 8), educational discourse has a procedural character and allows not only for the free exchange of ideas, but also for expressing one's opinions, with the aim to establish the system of values and beliefs. The author assumes that the very educational process, having a discursive nature, can both shape and investigate a way of thinking and comprehension, and at the same time reveal attitudes and judgments, as well as their verbalization. Learners' written discourse, considered as secondary discourse, constitutes the basis of Guzik's qualitative research. The learner is treated subjectively, and the study attempts to reveal his/her way of thinking, way of evaluating and expressing verbal behavior.

Investigating the structure of foreign language discourse, Niżegorodcew (1991, 1993) found that low proficiency foreign language learners (89 primary school pupils, aged 12 –15) while describing a picture story to a non-native FL interlocutor used the communication strategies which she broadly divided into "active" and "passive." The collected data enabled Niżegorodcew to identify four main types of exchange structure: the first two were typical of learners who were able to convey information without the interlocutor's help, whereas the remaining two types characterized less proficient learners, who showed two different approaches to the previously assigned communicative task. The "active" commu-

nication strategy involved appealing for help and making the most of the provided support in an attempt to deliver a message. The other, "passive" communication strategy consisted of repeating the preceding interlocutor's utterance without any effort to transmit information. What learners engaged in, as Niżegorodcew puts it (1993: 356), "was merely reactive behavior." The research implies that a more active learner, one who strives to obtain as much help as possible from his/her interlocutor, is able to get involved in such an interaction which is conducive to improving his/her communicative competence.

The fact that interactive discourse is an essential ingredient of modern language pedagogy has been emphasized by Majer (2003). In his research, he focuses on the nature of pedagogic discourse in two different types of instructional settings, i.e. traditional form-focused, teacher-centered EFL classrooms, and learner-centered, communication-oriented classrooms with group-managed tasks. Applying an ethnographic approach to the analysis of interactive interlanguage discourse in EFL classrooms in Poland, Majer presents types of interactive patterns which occur in such a setting. A thorough analysis of these patterns has shown that they can be placed on a continuum extending from tightly controlled to more variable patterns of communication. Furthermore, it enabled the author to make recommendations for language teaching, pre-service and in-service teacher education, as well as for further research. He emphasizes the fact that the strategic goal of teacher education is to develop ways of advancing more effective patterns of discourse which would be congruent with the learner-centered approach: "Modern language teaching methodology should take an even greater account of the importance of learner independence and learner-focused activities" (2003: 433). His suggestion is to combine the implementation of the lesson plan with effective classroom management through the expert use of teacher talk and maintenance of rapport with learners. In his opinion, if interaction is a crucial variable for successful foreign language learning, then teacher-monopolized classroom discourse does not constitute a favorable linguistic environment. On finding that the L1 is used by EFL teachers on an extensive basis, also in circumstances where language level or task difficulty do not justify it, he insists on the promotion of lively, extended, more meaning-focused and self-initiated classroom discourse, which means a shift in classroom communication patterns from teacher-dominated to learners' self-initiated and meaning-oriented discourse. The triadic IRF structure has been shown to be incompatible with communicative language teaching methodology, since it reveals unequal power discourse and teacher-directed classroom interaction. What is of importance in teaching speaking is the structure of a conversation (opening, transaction, closing), i.e. having control over the discourse, and not verbosity,

which seems to be neglected by Polish teachers and learners. As far as feedback patterns are concerned, in the opinion of Majer, teachers should demonstrate a greater degree of flexibility and respond spontaneously to unpredicted interactive challenges. Majer's research implies that investigating pedagogic discourse can become a powerful tool for teacher trainers as well as for language researchers interested in the process of language teaching.

Different aspects of classroom discourse were also investigated by Pawlak (2004) during EFL lessons conducted in Polish high schools. The author examined the impact of teachers' linguistic background and teaching experience on the extent to which interactive processes in the language classroom reflect those found in naturalistic settings. The study, involving ten experienced Polish teachers and ten native speakers of English with limited teaching experience, explored the following process variables: turn taking and initiative, the resultant discourse structure and interaction types, teachers' questioning behavior, students' communication strategies, the incidence and effectiveness of group work, the use of the learners' mother tongue, and repair. In order to get a complete view of the phenomena under investigation, methods of data collection such as audio recordings, questionnaires and direct observation were used. The findings demonstrate that the teacher's linguistic background and teaching experience exerted little influence on the occurrence of interactional modifications, student reliance on strategic competence, the incidence of group work, and the type and forms of repair. As for the native speakers, their pedagogic interactions with students resembled more those found in naturalistic settings. Moreover, their students received less explicit corrective feedback and were expected to answer more referential than display questions. However, it was the experienced Polish teachers who proved to be more likely than their American counterparts to follow up on their students' ideas and were less likely to provide corrective feedback on grammatical errors. Interestingly, students self-initiated their utterances more frequently and produced longer and more linguistically complex turns in the lessons conducted by the Polish teachers. Pawlak concludes that replicating the features of general conversation in the FL classroom does not necessarily promote language development and that it might be detrimental to adhere strictly to the principles of communicative language teaching in the Polish secondary school context. He suggests that teachers should preferably aim at a combination of meaning- and form-focused instruction, which means providing students with communicative skills and language functions together with explicit grammar instruction and corrective feedback.

The role performed by L2 instructional input in classroom discourse has been discussed by Niżegorodcew (2007). The author observes significant tensions in the FL context, which, in her opinion, result from the implementation of a communicative approach in the Polish educational context and entail a mismatch between a focus on fluency and a focus on accuracy, as well as between L2 and L1 use. She applies the tenets of relevance theory (Sperber and Wilson 1986 [1995]) to the analysis of verbal input for instructed FL learners. The relevance theory is believed to shed new light on the role of the teacher both during more teacher-centered and more learner-centered activities. It has been observed that if the whole of L2 teaching has one dominating focus, it is very difficult for teachers to persuade their learners to suspend their automatic focus on either accuracy or fluency and put more effort into a dual focus. The L2 instructional input should indicate to the learners, through change in the expected levels of relevance, how they should interpret it, whether as fluency practice, accuracy practice or as a combination of both. Niżegorodcew (2007: 149) concludes that for instructional input to be facilitating, it "must be recognized by the learners as serving both functions: communication of real meanings and providing corrective information." One of the research findings indicates that the learners who are more language aware, i.e. sensitive to form, and more curious about unknown forms, are also more able to recognize the above two functions. However, in large, undisciplined classrooms, particularly in teaching younger learners at lower L2 proficiency levels, teacher-centered classroom communication seems to be a better alternative than learner-centered group activities, when the teacher is unable to monitor all the groups. The L2 teacher's most important role in classroom communication is to mediate between a general focus on real L2 communication and temporary focuses on accuracy of L2 forms, facilitated by implicit or explicit corrective input provided by the teacher or elicited from the learners.

1.5. Final comments

Discourse occurring in the educational context has constituted the main concern of the present chapter. In order to fully comprehend the phenomenon of discourse, we attempted to discern its descent, i.e. discuss the concepts which discourse evolved from. For that purpose, we have presented the evolution of the concept of language competence, focusing on the changes it underwent so as to assume a full shape and comprise grammatical, sociolin-

guistic, discourse and strategic competence. It has been shown that the center of attention has moved from the internal – that is, the structure of language, to the external, which refers to the sociocultural features of language use. Discourse competence emerged as a result of this shift.

The first attempt at defining language competence was undertaken by Chomsky (1965), who proposed the concept of linguistic competence and divided the sphere of language into two parts, i.e. competence and performance. The former term concerned the underlying knowledge of grammatical rules and of other aspects of language; the latter, the implementation of that knowledge in actual use. However, Chomsky's concept met with critical comments expressed by Hymes (1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970), who accused the linguistic competence of being too monolithic and idealized. Specifically, the concept disregarded the appropriateness of the sociocultural significance of an utterance in the situational and verbal context in which it was used. As a result, both Hymes (1972) and Campbell and Wales (1970) put forward a broader notion of competence, one that would go beyond perfect competence, homogeneous speech community and independence of sociocultural factors, so as to embrace differential competence, heterogeneous speech community with an emphasis on the constitutive role of sociocultural features. In such a way, they formulated the concept of communicative competence, which paved a new way in the linguistic theory and occurred to be crucial for understanding social interaction. The shift of interest in the linguistic theory has been concomitant with a shift in focus of studies of acquisition (see section 3.3.). It has been emphasized that children must learn to speak not only grammatically correctly, but also appropriately. As such, they need to learn numerous sociolinguistic and social interactional rules that monitor appropriate language use. Therefore, not only did the development of grammatical competence become worthy of attention, but other facets of their communicative competence did, as well.

Hymes' model of communicative competence has been complemented by Halliday's (1973) Systemic Functional Linguistics, which introduced seven functional categories of language used by children in the acquisition of their first language, as well as by Canale and Swain (1980), who distinguished its three main components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Canale (1983) went even further to differentiate between sociolinguistic and discourse competence. Both Hymes' (1972) and Canale and Swain's (1980) concepts of communicative competence have un-

dergone significant alterations over the years, which are probably best encapsulated in Bachman's (1990) model of language competence and communicative language ability.

The subsequent parts of the chapter dealt with the nature of discourse. First, we defined discourse as the language that is used to communicate and which enables the participants of social interaction to bridge the gap and to negotiate meanings. It is concerned with studying the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. We have also discussed the two paradigms in linguistics, i.e. formalism and functionalism, and delineated the differences in their assumptions in terms of language and acquisition. Further, we have presented their contrasting views on discourse and attempted to reconcile the discrepancy between them by proposing an alternative definition of the term, i.e. discourse as utterances. We also dealt with the description of and comparison among the different approaches to discourse analysis. Although the six discussed approaches seem to overlap in particular aspects, it can be seen that they differ in several important ways.

After defining discourse and the origin of discourse competence, we proceeded to the presentation of educational discourse found in an EFL classroom. We stated that discourse used in a pedagogic context involves studies of speech events and exchanges occurring between the teacher and learners, and can be considered as a dialogue grounded in the development of mutual understanding and communicative space between them. It was emphasized that despite the teacher's dominant role in classroom discourse, learners are viewed not only as its participants, but also as interpreters. Since the communication in the classroom does not mirror natural communication, the discrepancies between L2 classroom discourse and naturalistic discourse were discussed with regard to the teacher's managerial role and the resulting unequal patterns of participation; the provision of predesigned and planned L2 input; the communicative intentions of the speakers; as well as the management of communicative breakdowns.

Further, educational discourse has been presented in terms of its goals, structure and types. It has been pointed out that learners' output depends on, among others, the interactional goals realized both by the teacher and the class. As a result, we have identified three major goals that stimulate interaction and communication in the classroom. Next, we have presented and compared various models of classroom discourse attempting to discern its structure and distinguish specific levels and types. Finally, findings of research on classroom discourse conducted in Poland have been analyzed, starting from studies investigating

discourse of content-area instruction in Polish and proceeding to studies dealing with the structure of foreign language discourse in EFL classroom.

Since the educational discourse occurring in teaching EFL to kindergarten children constitutes the main concern of the present dissertation, it definitely necessitates the discussion of studies focusing on child's linguistic development with special emphasis on his/her communicative growth. However, before we analyze the issues in this area, it is essential to present the psychological development of the child in three main domains, i.e. cognitive, emotional and social. These issues will constitute the essence of the next chapter.

Chapter 2: Cognitive and socio-emotional development of the child

2.0. Introduction

Working with young learners is a very demanding and challenging experience. It is especially difficult because of children's needs and motivations. In order to meet and satisfy them, one has to be aware of a child's peculiar way of thinking, understanding and speaking. Teaching young learners encompasses a variety of factors. In order to see what exerts influence on a preschool child learning a foreign language, one needs to take a closer look at developmental psychology. This chapter will focus on the development of the child in three essential areas – cognitive, social and emotional. Although we treat these domains separately, it is important not to lose sight of their unitary nature. Cognitive and socio-emotional factors are closely intertwined in every facet of development. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 7) point to scientists being increasingly aware that what happens in any one domain depends largely on what happens in the others.

The present chapter is going to illustrate the cognitive development of the child in terms of the changes that occur in the course of his/her passing through developmental stages and attaining higher intellectual skills, as well as forming various concepts. The following section will present the socio-emotional sphere together with the effects of the socialization process and the parts played by its agents, namely parents and peers. Furthermore, the role of emotions in a child's life will be discussed as well as the development of emotional self-regulation. Next, the main changes in personality will be considered, including the development of self-esteem and self-efficacy. The last section will deal with the importance of play in a child's life, attempting to discuss its nature, types and functions.

2.1. Cognitive development

Cognitive psychology deals with the way the human mind thinks and learns, and it has had a considerable impact on language teaching methodology. From Latin the term *cognoso* means "to know" and refers to such mental activities as acquiring, processing, structuring and retaining one's knowledge. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 49) maintain that "[c]ognition involves how we go about representing, organizing, treating, and transforming information as we devise our behavior." Therefore, it is necessary, for the purpose of the present work, to illustrate the cognitive development of children and discuss the significant changes that occur throughout childhood. Ausubel (1968: 176) enumerates the following changes in cognitive capacity that influence learning, retention, and thinking processes:

> increased widening and complexity of the cognitive field; increased familiarity of the psychological world; greater differentiation of the cognitive structure; (…); the possession of more abstract, higher-order concepts and transactional terms; greater ability to comprehend and manipulate abstractions and relationships between abstractions – without recent or current reference to concrete-empirical experience; (…); decreased subjectivity in approach to experience; increased attention span; and increased differentiation to intellectual ability.

Research on cognitive development has been dominated by two main questions. First of all, as noted by Birch and Malim (2002 [1995]: 37), the issue of the changes in cognitive functioning that appear in children's minds as they grow up needs to be addressed; as well as the question of the factors that are responsible for these changes. One of the most influential theories accounting for those changes was Jean Piaget's [1896 –1980] theory of cognitive development.

2.1.1. The underlying assumptions of Piaget's theory

According to Piaget (1966 [1964]), the human mind is viewed as an active and self-regulating system, which develops due to interacting with the environment. Therefore, one can understand intellectual development only by analyzing constant and dynamic mutual interactions between the child and the environment (Schaffer 2006: 186). In order to grasp the way the child acquires knowledge, one has to analyze how, in the course of its development, the child exerts influence on the environment, and scrutinize the reverse process. The already born child is not perceived as a *tabula rasa*, but, in Piaget's opinion, is en-

dowed with a special, although primitive, mental structure, which predisposes him/her to use the received information. Consequently, Piaget's theory has come in for a lot of criticism from behaviorists, who "viewed the child as essentially a passive, blank state upon which experience etched the individual" (Callaghan 2005: 204). The constructive nature of the learning process is emphasized in Piaget's theory, which means that children are actively involved first in experimenting with objects and later on in constructing and creating concepts that are their own personal images. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 50) following Beilin (1990, 1992) and T. Brown (1996) conclude that children's knowledge is constructed as a result of their interaction with the environment, which "leads to new perceptions of the world and new organizations of knowledge." This acquisition of information is always based on action rather than on the process of passive accumulation. Furthermore, in each stage of development, children are able to select, interpret, process, and reconstruct their experience so as to adjust it to their cognitive structures (Schaffer 2006: 187), which, although primitive at initial stages, allow for the cognitive functioning to gain a gradual complexity with regard to "perception, objectivity-subjectivity, the structure of ideas or knowledge, and the nature of thinking or problem solving" (Ausubel 1968: 191).

Let us now take a closer look at the factors which determine the interaction with the environment. According to Piaget's theory, "the individual's encounters with his environment are determined, (…), by inherited mechanisms common to the whole species called functional invariants" (G. Brown 1977: 82). Whenever the child exhibits intelligent behavior, he/she is trying to adapt to the environment. Therefore, "mental development would then be characterized by progressive changes in the processes of active adaptation" (Inhelder 1970: 26). The adaptation consists of two complementary processes: assimilation and accommodation. G. Brown (1977: 82) states that "organisation and adaptation are termed functional invariants. Whereas the functions are invariant, at any particular stage in the child's life his actions will be somewhat variable, though they will be seen to have some unifying features." It means that the child's cognitive structures will correspond to his/her level of knowledge and experience.

Piaget (1966) perceived cognitive development as a process of maturation. The developing mind is viewed as striving for equilibration – a balance between what is known and what is currently being explored. This is accomplished by the two previously mentioned processes – assimilation and accommodation. The former is characterized as a process through which the incoming information is changed or modified in children's minds so that they can fit it in with what they already know. In the latter, children modify

what they already know to receive new pieces of information. Piaget believes that these two activities, "taking-in (assimilation) and changing-in-order-to-make-use-of (accommodation) are fundamental processes in intellectual development" (G. Brown 1977: 81). If the child finds it impossible to assimilate the new information with his/her cognitive structure, he/she then experiences a state of disequilibrium. Due to their curiosity about the world, children fall into this state quite frequently and therefore "will strive until a new equilibrium is reached and the mental tension is resolved" (G. Brown 1977: 83). This striving, according to Piaget, is the main instrumental force of intellectual/cognitive development. The development proceeds on the condition that the new information is not divergent from what the child already knows. Hauert (1990: 6, following Case 1985: 22), notices:

> Equilibrium is a cognitive state in which the greatest number of external events can be explained with the most parsimonious and least contradictory set of internal structures. If cognitive structures were relatively specific entities, or if their construction were dependant on external events only, then the process of equilibration might proceed relatively rapidly. However, because cognitive structures have great generality, and because they must be abstracted from patterns in children's own operations on the world (i.e., reflexively) rather than by direct apprehension of the world itself (i.e., 'empirically'), Piaget saw the pace of development as being necessarily a slow one.

Despite its slow pace, as Inhelder (1970: 26) observes, the states of intellectual development represent a constant progression from a less to a more complete equilibrium, which is not perceived as a static state, but as a new point paving the way for higher forms of mental development.

Piaget perceived cognitive development in terms of a series of stages. Each stage is qualitatively different from both the previous and the ensuing one, and is characterized by significant reorganization in a child's cognition. Although the child may reach a particular stage earlier than other children, the sequence of stages is fixed. According to Piaget (1970, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 51), although teaching and experience can accelerate or hinder development, neither can change the basic order of the stages. The child cannot attain a higher stage of development without passing through the earlier ones. Inhelder (1970: 21) defines the criteria of Piaget's stages of intellectual development as follows:

> a) Each stage involves a period of formation (genesis) and a period of attainment. Attainment is characterized by the progressive organization of a composite structure of mental operations.
> b) Each structure constitutes at the same time the attainment of one stage and the starting point of the next stage, of a new evolutionary process.
> c) The order of succession of the stages is constant. Ages of attainment can vary within certain limits as a function of factors of motivation, exercise, cultural milieu, and so forth.

d) The transition from an earlier to a later stage follows a law of implication analogous to the process of integration, preceding structures becoming a part of later structures.

One may infer that the stages, structures, and drive towards equilibration, attained by assimilation and accommodation, are key terms in Piaget's theory of cognitive development. In the subsequent parts of the chapter we will illustrate the process of children's concept formation, the development of attention and memory, as well as the four stages of development together with their significant features.

2.1.2. Concept formation

The results of Piaget's research enabled him to formulate the rules underlying the formation of concepts by children. We have already mentioned that children are actively involved right from birth in constructing concepts, owing to which they are able to think about and categorize the objects and phenomena present in the environment. It should be borne in mind that there is a great discrepancy between children's and adults' concepts. Objects that children can see, touch and interact with belong to their repertoire of concepts. According to Piaget, as children grow older, the way they are able to generate and use concepts changes (Birch and Malim 2002: 39).

Before we discuss the general characteristics of children's conceptual thinking, it is necessary to define a concept and answer the question of why we need concepts. Ausubel (1968: 506–507) states:

> (…) concepts (…) standardize and simplify the environment and, hence, facilitate reception learning, problem solving, and communication. Because it is cumbersome and cognitively inefficient to deal with continuously graded events, man resorts to categorization, responding to heterogeneous objects or events as a class or as members of a class. Concepts free thought, learning, and communication from the domination of the physical environment. They make possible the acquisition of abstract ideas in the absence of concrete – empirical experience – ideas that can be used both to categorize new situations under existing rubrics and to serve as anchoring foci for the assimilation and discovery of new knowledge.

The above suggests that there is a natural tendency in human being to classify and categorize the encountered objects and events, and certainly the formation of concepts allows the child a gradual release from concrete and tangible experiences. Child (1986: 142) is of a similar opinion and emphasizes the role of caretakers in supporting children in concept formation:

> The speed and inevitability of concept attainment in the young, (…), have led many to believe that we are born with a predisposition to order our perceptions into concepts. However, though the act of concept formation might be inborn, the substance of the concepts is acquired from experience and it is this vital point which is of concern to teachers. Both parents and teachers constitute reference groups for assisting children in establishing concept attributes.

Ausubel (1968: 509–510) distinguishes between two types of concept acquisition, namely, concept formation and concept assimilation. The former process is characteristic of the preschool child's inductive acquisition of ideas (e.g. house, dog, table, etc.), the latter – of older (school age) children, as well as adolescents and adults.

The process of concept formation by children has its system and organization, and yet constitutes a prolonged activity, which lasts until the child builds a solid repertoire of ideas. The conceptual world of the child is characterized, according to Piaget, by phenomenalistic causality, which means that "there is a causal relationship between two things that happen simultaneously" (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 243). The child, when frightened, might look for an object which serves as an asylum. Once the object has brought relief, the child will always associate that object with protection. Elkind and Weiner further describe another feature of children's thinking, that is, transductive reasoning. They define it in the following terms: if A and B occur together, and if A is present, then B must also be present. Moreover, the above mentioned rule is illustrated with this example: if new food and an unpleasant experience occurred together in the past, the next new food therefore will produce an unpleasant experience in the child. Elkind and Weiner add that the child's thinking also employs animism and purposivism. The former characteristic is based on a child's belief that the inanimate world is alive; the latter signifies the natural curiosity about the world and the belief that everything has a purpose.

At each stage of development the child constructs his/her system of concepts. Ausubel (1968: 526) points out that "conceptual development involves a continuous series of reorganizations in which existing concepts are modified as they interact with new perceptions, ideational processes, affective states and value systems. Increasing cognitive sophistication also leaves its mark on conceptualization. Concepts become more elaborate, systematic and flexible (…) and less diffuse, syncretistic and subjectivistic (…)." One may observe that conceptual development runs parallel with the development of cognition. The two psychological mechanisms that are also inextricably linked to child's cognition are

attention and memory. We will now attempt to define them and discuss their developmental route occurring in childhood.

2.1.3. Attention and memory

Vasta et al. (1995: 258) posit that since attention performs a central role in holding control over information processed by mind, the research on its development is of paramount importance. Human beings possess a unique capability of attending to particular stimuli and ignoring others. Child (1986: 64) observes that the study of attention focuses on explaining how the body copes with so many signals and why an individual selects certain stimuli for attention. In fact, attention, as defined by J. E. Richards (2005: 282), is "the selective enhancement of some behavior at the expense of other behavior." He further adds that it may be perceived both as a specific psychological mechanism and as a peculiarity of individual psychological behavior. Child (1986: 68–70) discusses the factors which influence attention and divides them into external and internal. In his opinion, the following aspects constitute the external factors: the intensity and novelty of the stimuli, their variability, change, and regularity presented in time or space, certain colors, high sounds, conditioned and habitual stimuli, and the deliberate use of clues which direct attention to a stimulus. The internal factors, among others, are composed of the subsequent aspects: interest or the lack of it, which potentially cause differential attention; fatigue, which is supposed to have a detrimental effect on attentiveness; the level of arousal; the attention needs, which definitely influence attention's direction; expectation, i.e. attention is drawn to those activities which are least expected; and finally personality characteristics, e.g. the distinction between extraverts and introverts, which have a differential influence on attention.

Attentive behavior can already be observed in the neonatal period. Owens (1984: 112) presents the infant as "an active stimulus seeker, who will even work to attain certain types of stimulation." Following Stern (1977) and his differentiation between perceptual (sensory) and cognitive stimulation, he states that the neonate seeks solely perceptual stimulation. The low level of stimulation may result in losing interest, attention fall, averting his/her face, becoming restless and crying for assistance. Kagan (1970, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 258) provides an explanation of what directs the infant's attention. He states that infants younger than three months of age attend to objects including contour and move-

ment. In the period between 3 and 12 months, they pay attention to things that seem to be surprising or incompatible with their experience. From 12 months onwards, they focus on events which make them formulate hypotheses or expectations based on their knowledge. Vasta et al. (1995: 257) notice that orienting and defensive reactions seem to constitute the earliest symptoms of positive and negative attention. Sensory stimuli which draw the neonate's attention result in the former type of reaction, whereas those which induce rejection cause the latter one. J. E. Richards (2005) points to developmental changes of attention which occur in early and middle childhood. According to him, newborns exhibit a form of attention called stimulus orienting, which involves the movement of sensors to enhance the quality of external information. In other words, the sensory systems and receptors are oriented towards significant environmental events. The most important change during the first eighteen months, in J. E. Richard's (2005: 285) view, is in sustained attention (also known as focused attention), which entails "the enhanced and selective processing of information for specific psychological behavior." He observes that numerous interesting, to the infant, cognitive and social activities appear mainly during episodes of sustained attention, e.g. infants prefer to look at relatively new objects and faces, and to listen to novel sounds (J. E. Richards 2005: 282). Therefore, novel stimuli elicit initially stimulus orienting, which is further replaced by sustained attention. By the middle of the second year, these two basic functions of attention are fully developed and entrenched in the human cognitive and behavior system. The period from eighteen months through mid-adolescence, as noted by J. E. Richards (2005: 284), is concomitant with the development of executive attention and executive functioning. Executive function refers to the psychological activities which monitor behavior and evaluate its progress, and distribute cognitive resources. Apart from that, it also means the ability to direct attention to self-established goals and plans, and to guide a planful behavior selectively so that the attention to the particular aspects of the environment compatible with this behavior is enhanced or inhibited, if incongruous with it.

The development of attention is closely linked to perceptual development, which, as defined by Bower (1977, as cited in Owens 1984: 111–112), consists of four aspects: growth, stimulation, habituation, and organization. Growth entails the development of the entire nervous system with an increased number of cells. Stimulation denotes environmental input. The third aspect is formed by habituation, which results from schemes developed for frequently occurring stimuli and enables the child to pay attention to new stimuli with-

out rivalry from competing, but less novel stimuli. Finally, organization allows the child to store information that is used for subsequent retrieval.

Vasta et al. (1995: 257) observe that researchers focus mainly on the development of selective attention, which means a child's ability to invest his/her energy in a given stimulus, and not the other. In the attempt to explain whether a child is able to listen selectively to two streams of information, Maccoby (1967, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 259) conducted an experiment on children being exposed simultaneously to two voices, male and female. When asked to report on what they had heard, the researcher observed significant differences in answers provided by younger and older children. The former group confused the information expressed by the two voices; the latter were able to give an account of what had been said by each person. Hence, as noted by Vasta et al. (1995: 259), the ability to direct attention to one stream of information increases with age. Moreover, they observe a general tendency in attention development, which is based on the transition from attention controlled by external stimuli to gradually stronger self-control grounded in self-established plans and goals.

Flavell (1985, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 258) distinguishes four facets of attention which develop as the child matures. Firstly, the control of attention increases with age, which means that the attention's scope is enhanced, whereas its susceptibility to distraction decreases. Secondly, the adaptability of attention is changing. When the researcher asks the subject to pay attention to a particular task, older children follow his/her order without attending to irrelevant matters, while younger ones are concerned with much more information not directly related to the task. Thirdly, the planning ability of attention is strengthened, which evinces itself in the ability to take appropriate decisions before carrying out a task. The previously mentioned aspect is closely connected with the fourth issue mentioned by Flavell, which is the developing ability to apply the relevant attention's strategies.

Children, while gaining cognitive maturity, become more and more equipped with stimulation coming from their environment. Vasta et al. (1995: 321) posit that the experience the child garners influence him/her on the condition that the information incorporated in that experience is stored in memory. At this point the question arises whether small children are capable of remembering things and how they encode and retrieve messages they have received. Herbert (2005: 265) defines memory in most general terms as "the recall and more rapid relearning of previously experienced behaviors." She maintains that if we perceive memory in terms of the conscious recollection of past experience, then it is

extremely difficult to evaluate memory abilities in the pre-verbal infant (Herbert 2005: 269). However, if the ability of past experience to influence present behavior is considered as evidence of memory, then, as observed by DeCasper and Spence (1986), even the neonate may demonstrate retentive abilities.

Lindsay and Norman (1977, as cited in Owens 1984: 110) have proposed a three-tiered model of cognitive functioning, which is composed of sensory information storage, short-term memory and long-term memory. Owens (1984: 110) adds that the limited time constraints of sensory memory as well as the restricted capacity of short-term memory both enhance the importance of long-term memory for learning. According to him, memory constitutes "the transfer of information within the system," including such processes as acquisition (known as encoding), storage and retrieval. Children differ with regard to the strategies they apply to control information flow between parts of the system (Owens 1984: 111). Since their cognitive demands rise, deliberate strategic memory behaviors develop and increase with age. Vasta et al. (1995: 324) state that the improvement in memory functioning plays a significant role, because it affects the way parents and teachers treat children and what they can expect from them.

Psychologists, as noted by Vasta et al. (1995: 321), differentiate between the two main types of memory, i.e. identification memory, which means the ability to make oneself aware that a given stimulus or event available perceptually has already been encountered, and reproductive memory, which enables one to retrieve a stimulus or event without their perceptual availability. It seems that a child's memory in the first months of life is limited to the former type. Vasta et al. assume that the phenomenon of habituation constitutes the symptom of identification memory. They emphasize the fact that the procedure of habituation has mainly been used in research on children's memory. However, proving the occurrence of habituation in the neonatal period poses a difficulty to researchers (e.g. Berg and Berg 1987, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 322), who have maintained that it cannot manifest at such an early stage. And yet, other research (e.g. Friedman 1972, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 322) reveals that the neonate, under conducive circumstances, shows symptoms of habituation with regard to different modalities. Vasta et al. (1995: 322) conclude that the neonate demonstrates reproductive memory abilities to a certain extent. The fact that a child shows habituation to a given stimulus informs us that he/she recognizes some facets of a stimulus, but glosses over the content of what he/she memorizes. Infants, as observed by Owens (1984: 111), need more repeated rehearsals so that the information is coded in

long-term memory. They benefit considerably from repeated presentation of the stimulus. As Herbert (2005: 270) puts it, "[r]eminders and reactivation treatments are important factors in the long-term maintenance of early experiences by human infants." Vasta et al. (1995: 322) following Borovsky and Rovee-Collier (1990) state that older infants are able to memorize a greater quantity and variety of information than younger ones. They point out that researchers are not unanimous with regard to the age at which reproductive memory starts to emerge. It is much easier to study identification memory in the early developmental stages because of the lack of the established reproduction indicators prevailing among small children. Vasta et al. (1995: 323) assume that reproduction must develop at the end of the second year since it is essential for performing certain behaviors, e.g. expressing appropriate verbal messages. However, their assumption is tentative.

At this point, it is necessary to explain why older children memorize things more effectively than younger ones. Let us consider the factors that are responsible for memory developmental improvement. First of all, children tend to apply memory strategies. Bjorklund's (1990, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 325) research reveals that older children produce and implement memory strategies more often than younger ones. Vasta et al. (1995: 325) point out that three strategies have been most thoroughly examined in research on memory, i.e. repetition of information, its organization according to conceptual categories and data elaboration, which means their binding into a more general picture or story. However, children under the age of 5 or 6 are usually unable to devise strategies on their own. It seems that a child at this stage does not feel any need to undertake such action in order to enhance memorization. Matczak (2003: 95) states that the memorization process in the early stages of development is described as involuntary in terms of the three previously mentioned processes, i.e. encoding, storage and retrieval. They are carried out in the course of other activities and do not constitute separate events. The first symptoms of voluntary memorization appear in the second half of the kindergarten period and concern the retrieval process. At this point, one may observe an inclination for the reproduction of previously encoded information among children. Matczak further adds that voluntary encoding appears, which is accompanied by actions directed at information storage based on repetition. As can be seen, in the course of development not only does the frequency of strategy use increase, but also its complexity. Vasta et al. (1995: 325) note that repetition seems to be a simple strategy, which appears as one of the first strategies used by 6- and 7-year-old children. Following Locke and Fehr (1970), they maintain that younger children tend to repeat

things when stimuli are available perceptually, whereas the older notice the benefit of repetition under circumstances devoid of stimuli. Gradually, as observed by Matczak (2003: 95), the child becomes able to direct his/her memory processes voluntarily in the attempt to enhance their efficiency. This takes place in the school period, although no differences in the efficiency between involuntary and voluntary memory in the first grades of primary school have been observed.

Another factor responsible for the improvement of memory development, distinguished by Vasta et al. (1995: 327), refers to the child's increasing knowledge of memory, which is defined as metamemory. Its initial development occurs in the kindergarten period, when, as noted by Matczak (2003: 96), the child begins to realize that in certain circumstances it is necessary to endeavor to store certain pieces of information, and to understand verbal instruction concerning memorization. Vasta et al. (1995: 327) perceive metamemory as an important outcome of a child's cognitive development. They note that the majority of researchers believe that the increase in metamemory constitutes a significant source of memory development. Even small children reveal a certain, although low, level of knowledge in this field. At the age of 5 and 6 most children, as stated by Kreutzer et al. (1975, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 328), are aware of the fact that memorization of familiar elements is easier than of previously unencountered ones. However, they point out that the metamemory of small children is limited in that they do not comprehend numerous memory processes such as the ease of related elements' memorization as opposed to the difficulty of unrelated elements' memorization.

Finally, the development of memory is concomitant with an increase in cognitive structures. Vasta et al. (1995: 332) explain that with age memory becomes more constructive, because children show greater activity in information processing and are more inclined to draw conclusions, which enable them to go beyond the encoded information. Developmental changes in constructive memory provide the answer to the question of why the memory of older children is more efficient than that of younger ones. Vasta et al. hint at the fact that the more children know, the more they comprehend, and consequently the more they memorize. They deduce that in the course of cognitive structures' and children's general knowledge development, there appears an increase in the complexity of constructive activity, which entails the ability to arrive at conclusions and exceed the encoded information.

In order to fully understand the factors responsible for memory development, one needs to take a closer look at the changes which occur at particular stages of cognitive development.

2.1.4. Stages of cognitive development

In the subsequent sections we will discuss the four stages of cognitive development distinguished by Piaget (1950). The characteristic features pertinent to each stage as well as changes in child's cognition will be illustrated following Anderson (1985), G. Brown (1977), Inhelder (1970), Vander Zanden et al. (2007), Birch and Malim (2002), Ausubel (1968), Elkind and Weiner (1978) and Schaffer (2006).

2.1.4.1. Sensorimotor stage

The first stage of cognitive development is called the sensory-motor stage and lasts from birth until the age of two. At this stage the infant explores the environment through senses and motor action, and, as Anderson (1985: 402) puts it, "develops schemes for thinking about the physical world". This period is characterized by a gradual formation of the schema of object permanence. In the early months of life, the child is still unable to internalize a representation of an object, but symbolizes it in the form of physical action (G. Brown 1977: 84). It means that the child notices the object, but when it disappears from the field of vision, it also disappears from his/her mind. The object simply ceases to exist for the infant. Anderson (1985: 403) gives the example of a 6-month-old reaching for a toy. Once a cloth is placed over the toy, the infant stops reaching and appears to lose interest in it. The concept of object permanence develops slowly and it is around the age of 8 months that the child, as Inhelder states (1970: 23), is able to "realize that objects have permanence; they can be found again, whatever their displacements."

Towards the end of the second year of life, the child starts to internalize objects' representations. The need for acting upon the objects decreases. Piaget called such internalization process "pre-operation" (G. Brown 1977: 84). Once the child has formed some sym-

bols which represent objects in his/her mind, there is a move into the second stage, called the pre-operational stage.

2.1.4.2. Pre-operational stage

Following Piaget (1966: 35), the pre-operational stage lasts from the age of 2 till the age of 7 and is also known as the intuitive stage as the child remains prelogical and replaces logic with intuition. Gradually the child perceives and deals with the environment in a more elaborate way. His or her actions and thoughts become more and more organized. The most significant achievement of that period is developing the ability to represent the world internally in terms of symbols. The development of speech facilitates symbolic thinking. The child does not have to refer to the "here and now" in order to represent an object or event in his/her mind. Yet, the child's thinking is far from that of an adult in terms of the ability to use mental operations. In these early years these operations are beginning to take place, but they are as yet inflexible. Children's reasoning and thinking processes have a number of limitations. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 247) explain that "[t]hese limitations can be seen in the difficulties preschool children have when they try to solve conservation problems," which "derive from the characteristics of preoperational thought." Characteristics such as egocentrism, conservation (which ties in with the inability to decenter and to focus on transformations), and irreversibility impose limitations on a child's thinking in this stage.

First of all, the child is unable to understand that there are different points of view. His inability results from egocentrism. G. Brown (1977: 85) suggests that "the child is 'self-centred' in the literal sense that he is unable to comprehend the view other people may possess. He acts and speaks on the assumption that what is known to him must be common knowledge to all." Preoperational children are so engrossed in their own perspective that they are unable to understand that other people might have different thoughts, feelings and assumptions. It evinces itself in the child's reporting on the event which she/he has experienced. He/she usually describes the event as if the listener knew everything about it. G. Brown illustrates the phenomenon of egocentrism with Piaget's famous experiment of the "three mountain problem," where the child is sat in front of the model of three mountains. He/she is then shown photos of the model taken from different perspectives. When asked to point to the model which suits the one in front of them, the majority of preschool children perform well on this task. The second stage of the experiment involves placing a doll in a

position other than that from which the child sees the model. The child's task is to point to the photo which illustrates the view the doll would have. The majority of children point to the photo presenting their own view. Such failure signifies the egocentric nature of children's thinking and their inability to detach from their own perspective and to realize that other people may perceive a given situation in a different way. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 248) referring to Piaget (1963), Mead (1934) and Aboulafia (1991) state that a child must overcome an egocentric perspective if he/she is to participate in mature social interaction.

Anderson (1985: 404–405) notices that "Piaget was interested in how a child develops the concept of quantity and learns that quantity is something that is preserved under various transformations." The research on this issue is termed research on conservation. Piaget conducted special experiments which investigated the conservation of quantity, weight, number, volume and liquid. Following G. Brown (1977), let us consider an example of one of these experiments, namely the liquid conservation task. The child is asked to pour the same amounts of water into two identical beakers. He is asked whether the amount of water is the same in both beakers. Having confirmed, the water from one beaker is poured into the tall, thin beaker. When asked whether the amount of water in the two beakers is still the same, the child says that the tall container holds more. As G. Brown (1977: 86) suggests, the child "is being influenced by a single predominant attribute, the height of the column." Therefore, one may infer that pre-operational thinking is limited to grasping only one physical attribute of the object in question, which relates to the inability of the child to decenter – "to attend simultaneously to both the amount of water and the shape of the container" (Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 247). It results that to explore more than one aspect of the stimulus is beyond the capability of the preoperational thought. The lack of conservation results from children being "distracted by irrelevant features of a display" (Anderson 1985: 407). The child is not able to relate seeing the water poured from one container to the other to the quantity of liquid. Therefore, preoperational thought focuses on static states rather than transformations. As Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 247) posit, "[c]hildren cannot solve conservation problems, because they fail to see the relationship between events, or fail to link successive states into a coherent sequence of events." They have not yet grasped the conservation, which ties in with what Piaget called the principle of reversibility (G. Brown 1977: 86). Once mastered, the principle enables the child to, as G. Brown (1977: 86) puts it, "mentally undo the process."

The pre-operational stage is also characterized by irreversibility of operations (Birch and Malim 2002: 40). The operations enable the child to comprehend the complex rules of

environmental functioning. One of their characteristic features is reversibility. At this stage, the child is unable to reverse the process mentally. The child knows that 2 plus 2 equals 4, but does not understand that 4 minus 2 equals 2. Ausubel (1968: 199) notices that since the child cannot perform the logical operation of 'reversibility', he cannot (unlike the concrete or abstract operational child) grasp the idea of 'conservation'; for example, he does not 'conserve' mass. The child cannot understand that the amount of plasticine remains the same even if its shape is changed, because, as Ausubel (1968: 199) notices, he is not aware of the fact that deformations of shape are reversible or that a loss in one dimension is compensated for by a gain in another.

Whereas a five-year-old child will maintain that the amounts of plasticine are the same, an older child will show signs of uncertainty. It means that something is happening to his handling of the problem. Piaget perceives such state as that of disequilibrium, which might be solved by a gradual move into the subsequent stage – the concrete-operational one.

2.1.4.3. Concrete-operational stage

At the third stage, which is called the concrete-operational stage and which, according to Piaget (1950, 1952), lasts from the age of 7 till the age of 11, operations can be reversed. Due to the application of the principle of reversibility, "the concrete-operational child exhibits conservation in his thinking and understanding" (Eifermann and Etzion 1964; Smedslund 1962, as quoted in Ausubel 1968: 201). However, according to Piaget, the ability to conserve particular qualities appears in a certain order of emergence. First, conservation of mass, then weight, number, and volume are acquired (Uzgiris 1964, as cited in Ausubel 1968: 201).

Child's thought becomes less egocentric in nature. The child begins to see things and events from various perspectives. Elkind and Weiner (1978: 380) note that "around the age of six or seven, children develop certain new mental abilities that Piaget calls concrete operations. Thanks to these operations, elementary-school children can form concepts of classes, relations and numbers, thereby greatly expanding their conceptual world." There appears the increasing ability to classify things according to their common features and arrange them according to a certain order. The child becomes independent from visual attributes of objects and is able to grasp the relation between the whole and a part. Due to

this ability, as G. Brown (1977: 87) notes, he/she builds "classifications into complex networks of subordinate and superordinate categories."

Although this stage constitutes an advancement related to the previous one, it is still limited in the child's reliance on concrete objects and events. The child needs to manipulate and experiment with objects in order to solve a problem which concerns them. Furthermore, Anderson (1985: 407) states, the child will find it difficult to answer the question: "If Fred is taller than Bill and George is taller than Fred, then who is the tallest?" without the manipulation upon the figures representing the three persons in question. The capacities for abstract thought and for setting up hypotheses pose other limitations to the child's thought. They will develop with the emergence of the last stage of formal operations.

2.1.4.4. Formal operational stage

It is around the age of 11 that the child is capable of abstract reasoning without referring to concrete objects or events. G. Brown (1977: 88) states that "whereas concrete operations were concerned with producing equilibrium based upon what came directly to the senses, formal operations concern themselves with potentialities, with imagining what might exist and how it might be acted upon." Thinking becomes hypothetico-deductive in nature, which, as Birch and Malim (2002: 47) put it, means that the child solves problems due to the ability to form and test hypotheses, and to investigate their mutual relations.

This is the highest stage of cognitive development the child can achieve. His/her thought now becomes rational, systematic and abstract. Although he/she will go through other developmental stages on his/her way to adolescence, those stages will, according to Schaffer (2006: 205), concern the scope of knowledge rather than its essence.

2.1.5. Criticism of Piaget's theory

Piaget's theory provides insights into a child's cognition and enables one to determine the child's cognitive abilities, to analyze the demands set by a given task and to adjust them to the present state of the child's cognitive development. However, further research in this

field has shown that children are capable of the many things that Piaget held too advanced for them.

Flavell (1992, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 52) notices that Piaget's concept of stages implies long periods of stability, followed by abrupt change. In his opinion human cognitive development is too varied in its mechanisms, routes, and rates to be accurately portrayed by an inflexible stage theory. Growing up is much less predictable than Piaget assumed. Another criticism refers to children's cognitive abilities. As Novak and Gowin (1989, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 52) point out, the operational thinking capabilities of children from 2 to 7 years of age are considerably greater than Piaget recognized. Research on other cultures has revealed both striking similarities and marked differences in children's performance on various cognitive tasks. Certain aspects of cognitive development among children in these cultures seem to differ from particular assumptions of Piagetian theory (Chieh et al. 1999, Chieh 2000, Maynard and Greenfield 2003, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 52).

The major criticism concerns children's egocentric nature. It turns out that preschool children can recognize other people's viewpoints on their own terms. Even if they can be quite self-centered, they are not necessarily egocentric in the sense of not understanding other perspectives (N. Newcombe and Huttenlocher 1992, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 248). Researchers are unfolding many sociocentric (people-oriented) attitudes in young children. Pines (1979, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 248) found evidence of altruistic and prosocial behavior in a 2-year-old boy. However, Beard (1969, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 248) notes that the criticism depends on our perception of egocentrism.

Piaget believed that children until the age of 7 or 8 did not manage to comprehend cause-and-effect relationships. However, according to contemporary developmental psychologists, the rudiments for the causal processing of information are already evident among 3-month-old infants ("If I cry, Mom will come.") (Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 250). Gelman and Kremer (1991) state that by the time children are 3 to 4 years old, they seem to possess rather sophisticated abilities for discerning cause-and-effect relationships.

Other researchers (Bower 1974, McGarrigle and Donaldson 1974, Donaldson 1978, as cited in Schaffer 2006: 207–211) replicated Piaget's experiments using innovative methods and found out that the result of the child's solution to the experimental task is dependent on many more factors than the characteristics of the task itself. The social environment, the child's interpretation of the adult's intention, the applied procedures and the

measurement type – all these factors may influence the obtained results. Schaffer (2006: 209) notices that Piaget did not take into account any of them.

Inaccurate as it may seem, Piaget's work also had its advocates. One of the first U.S. psychologists who appreciated the worth of Piaget's research was Jerome S. Bruner (1964, as cited in Birch and Malim 2002: 53). He contributed significantly to our knowledge of cognitive development by clarifying the changes that occur in children's dominant modes for representing the world as they grow older. At first, in the period corresponding to the sensorimotor stage recognized by Piaget, the enactive mode of thought prevails. Williams and Burden (1997: 26) note that at this level learning comes about by means of direct manipulation of objects and materials, which means that children represent the world through their motor action. This representative process, as pointed out by Birch and Malim (2002: 53), involves neither imagination nor words. They state that enactive representations appear throughout life and evince themselves in numerous motor actions, which one learns through practice and which are not internally represented by words or images. In the preschool and kindergarten years there is a shift towards iconic representation. As observed by Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 165), children apply mental images or pictures that are closely connected to perception. Mental images can be visual, auditory, olfactory and tactile. Birch and Malim (2002: 53) state that they provide the child with means due to which he/she is able to create and develop a picture of the environment despite still being unable to describe it verbally. In the middle school years children develop symbolic representation, which, as stated by Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 165), enables them to use "arbitrary and socially standardized representations of things." They internally manipulate the symbols, which is characteristic of abstract and logical thinking. Williams and Burden (1997: 26) add that at this level, language comes to play an increasingly important role as a means of representing the world. Therefore, the three modes of thought mentioned above, iconic, enactive and symbolic, constitute the main strategies due to which children deal with their experience.

Much of Bruner's work, as observed by Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 165), reveals a strong Piagetian influence, particularly in the way he perceives the developmental stages. However, Williams and Burden (1997: 26) maintain that the three categories of representation, although presented as emerging in sequence, increasingly overlap rather than substitute each other. Of a similar opinion are Birch and Malim (2002: 54), who add that they not only overlap, but also are at our disposal throughout life. We do not leave behind earlier

representational modes and although adults' thinking occurs by means of symbolic representation, they apply iconic and enactive modes whenever it is essential.

The most obvious aspect that Piaget neglected in his considerations was the influence of the social environment on the child. While analyzing factors pertaining to developmental changes, he included the social experience, but maintained that the environment exerts the same influence on the child as the inanimate world does (Piaget 1964, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 50). Vasta et al. (1995: 51) state that the importance of social experience might be more significant than Piaget assumed. As Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 252–253) put it "Piaget thought that children learn as independent explorers," whereas Vygotsky (1962) introduced a sociocultural view that focused on the social aspects of cognitive development that Piaget did not take into account. Vygotsky [1896 –1934] (1962) proposed that cognitive growth occured in a sociocultural context and depended on the child's social interactions. This led to the formulation of the widely known theory of socio-cognitive development, which will be discussed in the subsequent part of the chapter.

2.2. Socio-emotional development

Cognitive maturation and skills acquired during the early childhood years have profound implications for children's ability to function as fully-fledged members of society (Stipek et al. 1992, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 259). Socio-emotional development includes changes in an individual's relationships with others, in his/her emotions, and personality. Youngstrom et al. (2000, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 264) point out that young children must be taught effective problem-solving skills in order to promote social competence. They master this ability while being involved in interactions with other people. Cochran and Niego (1995, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 281) state that when we are integrated in social networks and groups, we have access to positive experiences and a set of stable, socially rewarding roles in the community.

The following sections will discuss the sociocultural theory of development, the effects of the socialization process and the influence parents and peers exert on a child's development of social competence. Furthermore, we will deal with the affective sphere, including the roles of emotions in a child's life, as well as emotional regulation, and changes in personality.

2.2.1. Social development

The following sections will present Vygotsky's sociocultural theory as well as the role of the socialization process. Furthermore, we will discuss children's ability to control their own behavior and prosocial actions.

2.2.1.1. Vygotsky's sociocultural theory

Children are not brought up in a social vacuum. Therefore, Vygotsky (1978) maintained that in order to understand a child's development one had to observe him/her in a social activity. Rogoff (1990, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 55) following Vygotsky (1978) observes that "[a]ll of the higher [psychological] functions originate as relations between human individuals." In Vygotsky's opinion, the culture in which a child is raised and various interactions with other significant people, whose level of knowledge and skills is above the child's present capabilities, constitute the most important factors in cognitive development. Consequently, Vygotsky draws our attention to the role of the social environment and interpersonal processes that are responsible for changes in the functioning of the mind.

Vygotsky's theory attempted to explain how such mental functions as reasoning, thinking, remembering and planning emerge from the child's social experience, and how they are anchored in the child's interpersonal relationships (Tappan 1997). He analyzed the development on three levels: cultural, interpersonal and individual. Their integration determines the course of the child's development.

At the cultural level, the child does not have to construct his/her knowledge as Piaget assumed, but can use knowledge gathered through generations. Children can accomplish that due to the interaction with caretakers. At the interpersonal level, the child gains experience and knowledge while involved in problem-solving activities being accompanied by mediators, whose level of capabilities exceeds that of the child. Belmont (1989, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 51), following Vygotsky, observes that parents, teachers, peers or siblings – all of them – may act as mediators. Initially, the mediator supporting the child takes on full responsibility for directing the process of problem-solving, but gradually the responsibility is assumed by the child. Vygotsky believed that the child's propensity for making the most of the support and guidance provided by other people, especially parents, consti-

tuted a fundamental characteristic of human nature. This characteristic is perfectly complemented by the caretaker's propensity to offer help and advice. The activity of the mediator is significant for the further development of the child. Vygotsky (1978) maintained that the child would interact with another person, assimilate the social aspects of the activity, take that information and internalize it. In this way social values become personal values. It implies that intellectual skills appear as a result of the internalization process of various problem-solving abilities, which the child acquires while interacting with other people. The development proceeds from common regulation to self-regulation. The child is not a lonely being condemned to solving problems on his/her own, but is a partner in a common enterprise. It is believed that the child's potential evinces itself in what he/she can achieve with the help of a significant other rather than alone. On the other hand, the child is perceived as an active creator of his/her own development, which means that at the individual level he/she is not a passive recipient of the stimulus provided by adults, but actively searches, chooses and systematizes the guidance obtained from mediators. Alike Piaget, Vygotsky emphasized the constructive nature of development – children are involved in constructing their knowledge and acquiring skills indispensable for problem-solving. However, contrary to what Piaget believed, they cannot achieve it on their own, but in cooperation with other people – a view which is known as social constructivism.

The focal point of Vygotsky's theory constitutes the zone of proximal development, which is defined as the difference between what the child can do on his own and what he can accomplish with the help of the others. Vygotsky differentiated between the actual level of development – that is the child's achievements when acting alone, and the potential level of development – that is what the child could do with the help of the mediator. The difference between those two levels determines the zone of proximal development for a given child. The concept has important implications for adults who, in trying to influence the development of their children, have to adjust the tasks and demands so that they remain within the zone of proximal development. Adults acting as mediators must be sensitive towards the child's present capabilities and potential. Research (e.g. Rogoff and Wertsch 1984, Pratt et al. 1988, Freund 1990, Diaz et al. 1991) confirms that children, accompanied by adults, stand a better chance of solving tasks that they would be incapable of without the appropriate help and guidance (as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 391).

Wood et al. (1976) have proposed the concept of scaffolding that describes the way caretakers can direct and support children within their zones of proximal development, and at the same time they have introduced types of activities which would facilitate effective

learning and problem-solving. The concept emphasizes the interactive nature of learning and the importance of others' help in the interaction. Schaffer (2006: 230) points out that scaffolding is based on a mutual and cooperative effort aiming at shifting responsibility for completing the task from the caretaker to the child. The same process can be observed in Vygotsky's theory.

Rogoff (1990, as cited in Schaffer 2006: 230) defines a set of rules which determine effective guidance in learning:

1. The caretaker's role is to create a balance between the child's actual level of knowledge and skills and the demands of a new task.
2. While providing the child with guidance, the caretakers need to build scaffolding supporting him/her in problem-solving.
3. Although the child faces problems that are beyond his/her capabilities, the caretaker's action enables him/her to participate actively in problem solving and contributes to the successful completion of the task.
4. Effective scaffolding is based on a shift of responsibility from the caretaker to the child.

The concept of scaffolding reminds us of the fact that the learning process means collaborative effort on the part of the child and the caretaker. However, while it does not explain the way the child internalizes the guidance received from the mediator, it does draw our attention to the conditions in which the learning process occurs, stressing the socio-interactive nature of these conditions. Pratt et al. (1988, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 288) also emphasize the importance of scaffolding and state that it supports a child's learning through interventions and tutoring that provide helpful task information attuned to the child's current level of functioning.

Although Vygotsky's theory explains the sociocultural influences of development and the role that mediators played in the interaction, it does not include the factors determining a child's nature and its affective side. Therefore, as Schaffer points out (2006: 241–242), it is flawed in two ways as it neglects the child's own contribution to his/her development and to the interaction with others, and understates the emotional aspects. Even though Vygotsky attempted the integration of three developmental levels, cultural, interactive and individual, he severely ignored the last one. Nothing has been mentioned about the child's feelings and emotions, his/her motivation to achieve a certain goal and the accompanying joy or distress.

2.2.1.2. Socialization process

As children grow up, they "come into contact with increasing numbers and types of people with whom they experience many new kinds of social interactions" (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 256). Due to and for the reason of these social encounters, they learn and acquire the standards prevailing in the society, as well as the norms and values that agreed upon. At that time they undergo the process of socialization. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 279) define socialization as "the process of transmitting culture, of transforming children into bona fide, functioning members of society, (…) through which children acquire knowledge, skills, and dispositions that enable them to participate effectively in group life." Socialization develops the child's behavior so that he/she fulfills the society's roles, expectations and beliefs (Maccoby and Martin 1983, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 446). As Bennett (2005: 383) notes, "[i]t is through this process that children typically come to share many aspects of the behavior, cognition, and emotion of members of their society." It is assumed that socialization lasts through the whole childhood and influences children's further social behaviors. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 274) state that by the time the child reaches the age of 2, the socialization process has already begun. They further note that until recently most socialization research focused on the processes in which parental child-rearing strategies and behaviors had an impact on the child's development (Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 280). They observe that the part children played as active agents in their own socialization and in influencing their caretakers' behavior was neglected. This focus has changed over the past two decades (e.g. Maccoby 1992, Lerner et al. 1995, Lewis and Lamb 2003), resulting in a more balanced perspective (as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 280).

As claimed by Bennett (2005: 383–384), children are actively involved in the process of socialization for the three following reasons: infants' propensity for responding to caregivers, children's search for information relevant to their social identities and their natural tendency to shape the surrounding environment. First of all, infants display strong preferences for faces rather than other high-contrast patterns. The same pertains to their predilection for human voices over other sounds. Furthermore, from the second month of life, infants smile at those around them. All this suggests that they attempt to become social partners to their caregivers and play an active part in establishing early relationships. Secondly, children's active involvement in their own socialization is reflected in research on identity development (Martin 2000, as cited in Bennett 2005: 384). The research has shown that children actively seek out information that is relevant to their ascribed identities, e.g.

children attend to information appropriate for their sexes. Thirdly, children play a significant role in shaping the environments which they belong to. Bell's (1968, as cited in Bennett 2005: 383) research on "child effects" has demonstrated that innately given individual differences between children can have an important bearing upon parents' behavior toward them, and hence influence their environment. Certainly, children's temperament has a considerable influence on the child-rearing practices adopted by parents.

The above suggests that children are actively involved in the process of socialization. Bennett (2005: 384) goes even further and states:

> with increasing age children come to play a directive role in their socialization in that they set goals for their own development and pursue means to achieve those goals. Thus, from this relatively new perspective, socialization is to some extent a self-conscious process: by late childhood, the child is seen as a driving force in his or her own development.

However, while pursuing their own goals, they cannot ignore the goals and intentions of other people. As Bronson (1974: 280) puts it: "to achieve one's goals without violating the integrity of the goals of the other" is a major ability in the development of social competence.

Sameroff (1983, as cited in Bennett 2005: 384) points out that socialization is not only understood in terms of the active part played by the child, but also in terms of a systems approach. The child is perceived as embedded in a variety of mutually influencing relationships and social structures. To begin with, the family provides the first context for reciprocal influences and constitutes the setting where the child is for the first time introduced to the requirements of group life. Families are complex, multifaceted, dynamic systems as "each person and relationship within the system is subject to change and development" (Bennett 2005: 384). They should be perceived as "microsystems" embedded in broader social networks of the school and the peer group. Therefore, "the systems approach, (…), contends that a full account of human socialization must recognize complex reciprocal relationships at many levels of analysis, from the individual to the societal" (Bronfenbrenner 1989, as cited in Bennett 2005: 384).

The following subsections will discuss the roles that are played by the agents of socialization, namely the child's relationships with parents and peers.

A. Parent-child relationships

Since children are never brought up in a social vacuum, it is necessary to consider what the people that surround them contribute to their social development. Parents play a significant role in the course of the preschool time of the childhood. Berk and Winsler (1995, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 55) point out that development is always a social process, and child-adult interaction plays an important role. Children acquire knowledge and the tools of intellectual adaptation from the interactions with other people, especially parents (Vasta et al. 1995: 391).

Imitation constitutes the first mechanism for acquiring new skills and knowledge while observing caregivers. Early in life children imitate their parents' speech, gestures and preferences (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 276). As Meltzoff (2005: 327) states: "the mechanism of imitation has adaptive value since it is a powerful learning mechanism." Due to imitation, children improve their behavior over successive attempts. Although it has an innate basis, it is not an isolated reaction, but rather a springboard for further developments in understanding people (Meltzoff 2005: 327). During the preschool years these acts of imitation gradually develop into an identification process, as children progress from merely doing what their parents do to actually being like their parents (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 276). It has to be born in mind that strong identification promotes effective socialization. Elkind and Weiner (1978: 279) point out that "[t]he more children identify with their parents, the more likely they are to internalize their parents' codes of conduct." However, children seem to identify more strongly with parents who give them love and a sense of being accepted than with parents who make them feel disliked or unwanted.

Bowlby (1969) and Bretherton (1987, 1990) (as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 448) draw our attention to the fact that children and parents form a reciprocal system of relations. They explain that children develop internal working models of caregivers and themselves, which serve to interpret events and predict what is coming next. The child formulates predictions of his/her mother's behavior on the basis of the care provided by her. Crowell and Feldman (1991, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 448) claim that parents also develop internal working models of children, which reflect their expectations, and influence their interaction with the child. Such early interactions are characterized by the fact that each side influences the behavior of the other, at the same time adjusting to his/her reaction. In this way, they form a smooth system of reciprocal regulations (Tronick 1989, Bornstein and Tamis-LeMonda 1990, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 449). Effective communication

between a child and a parent constitutes the key to the development of the above bidirectional system.

The reciprocal relations can be observed in resolving conflicts between a parent and a child. Until recently, parent-child discord was conceptualized almost exclusively as related to situations of discipline: the parent gave an order or made a request which the child either adhered to or disobeyed. However, current observations present a broader picture. As A. R. Eisenberg (1992, as cited in Ross and Spielmacher 2005: 229) claims: "[c]hildren also make requests of their parents, and parents are actually somewhat less compliant than their preschool-aged offspring." Ross and Spielmacher (2005: 229) observe, on the other hand, that children defy their parents' demands in a variety of ways: "even young children bargain, propose alternatives to parents' requests, offer and seek explanations for their own or their parents' positions, and successfully resist their parents' wishes." They state that children's negotiation skills increase with age and are associated with parents' explanations, bargaining, and affection. Parent-child discord may serve to inculcate moral values and principles in the minds of children, which consequently may facilitate the development of social life. As Ross and Spielmacher (2005: 229) observe: "parents' discipline often involves instructing children in morally and socially acceptable behavior." When parents reprimand their children, they attend to someone's violated rights or welfare, trying to highlight moral principles, which their offspring should abide by. Kuczynski and Kochanska (1995, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 289) focus on disciplinary encounters between parents and their youngsters, which, in their opinion, provide a crucial context in which children learn strategies for controlling themselves and for controlling others, so parents who model competent strategies are more likely to have children who also are socially competent.

As a final remark on the parent-child relationship, let us consider the influence of parenting styles on socialization outcomes. Belsky (1984) has provided a framework that differentiates among the three major determinants of parental functioning: the parents' personality and psychological well-being, the child's characteristics, and the contextual sources of stress and support operating within and upon the family. Some styles of parenting have a more positive impact on socialization than others. As observed by Dix (1991) and Emig et al. (2001), troubled parents are more likely to have troubled children. Bennett (2005: 385) adds that parenting styles characterized by authority and warmth have been found to be more likely to encourage social, moral and self-regulatory competence than those characterized by, for example, authoritarianism and aloofness. However, it should be

emphasized that parenting styles are influenced by the child's characteristics, i.e. temperament (Bennett 2005: 385). Belsky's (1990) and Lewis and Lamb's (2003) research suggests that parents and other adults typically react to disobedient, negative, and highly active youngsters with negative, controlling behavior of their own. And yet, as Kochanska and Aksan (1995) posit, the home environment should be characterized by the warmth of the relationship between parent and child. Only love-oriented techniques tend to promote children's acceptance of responsibility and foster self-control through inner mechanisms of guilt (Becker 1964).

Children's relationships with parents exert influence on their relationships with peers. Turner's (1991) research shows that children having happy and warm relations with their parents stand an improved chance of developing successful relations with their peers, which further shape their social development. It has been found that preschoolers with secure maternal attachments enjoy more harmonious, less controlling, more responsive, and happier relationships with their peers than do preschoolers with insecure maternal attachments. The next subsection will thus address the issue of child-peers relationships.

B. Child-peer relationships

A growing body of research points to the importance of relationships with others (apart from that between the child and parents) in the development of interpersonal competencies. As children grow older, they establish their first important contacts with their peers. In the preschool years when "they are physically agile, eager to explore the world outside their home, and less in need of constant supervision, they enter into the bustling world of childhood play" (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 268). Hyson (1994) points out that young children demonstrate a close bond with other children in child-care settings. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 296) following Eckerman and Didow (1988) and Verba (1994) state that the reasons for that are twofold: their communication skills improve, facilitating effective interaction, and children's increasing cognitive competencies enable them to attune themselves more effectively to the roles of others. When children enter the interaction with peers, the relationships become more equal than those with parents. They require cooperation, negotiation and taking another's viewpoint. Musatti (1986, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 586) claims that it is the interaction with peers that enables the child to get rid of his/her initial egocentrism and acquire more mature ways of thinking.

Between the ages of 2 and 5 children expand their relationships with peers (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 592) and the interaction becomes increasingly more complex. In time

children start interacting with particular peers and avoid interacting with others forming in this way long-lasting friendships. Newcomb and Bagwell (1995, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 295) state that these early friendships constitute a major source of a child's emotional strength, and its lack can pose lifelong risks. This friendship, according to Ross and Spielmacher (2005: 232), is marked by reciprocity, stability, and a voluntary relationship. By preschool age, children demonstrate a preference for play partners who are the same sex (Maccoby and Jacklin 1987, Maccoby 1990). Preschool girls tend to interact in small groups, especially two person groups, whereas boys play more often in large groups (Eder and Hallinan 1978). Ross and Spielmacher (2005: 232) observe:

> Once preschoolers form friendships, their behavior with these individuals is distinct from that with other children who are familiar but not friends. For example, friends spend more time actually interacting with one another than do non-friends, and positive social exchanges and mutuality occur more among friends than non-friends. However, preschool children also demonstrate more quarreling and more hostility with friends than with non-friends.

The above suggests that this growing social interaction with peers is a valuable experience. However, as can be observed, some children enjoy popularity among their peers whereas others suffer from rejection or are treated on a neutral basis. Research studies (S. G. Moore 1967, Hartup et al. 1967, Hartup 1970, as cited in Elkind and Weiner 1978: 270) identify the characteristics associated with popular children and those who are withdrawn. Children who are liked by their peers are cooperative, frequently provide the kinds of attention and approval youngsters expect from each other and adapt well to group situations. They are socially conspicuous, represent a higher level of socialized behavior and use more reinforcements in their interactions. Goleman (1997 [1995]: 200) adds that before joining the group, they devote a lot of time to observation and only then accept the rules of the play.

Asher et al. (1982, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 619) assert that on a more detailed level of analysis, one can distinguish three kinds of skills important for popularity. Popular children are able to initiate interaction with peers and sustain it by providing other children with reinforcement, expressing sensitivity to others' needs and by communicating effectively both as speakers and listeners. Furthermore, they are capable of resolving conflicts. Elkind and Weiner (1978: 270) postulate that "[o]n the other hand, children tend to be disliked if they are socially withdrawn or hostile, if they ignore or make fun of others' efforts to win praise, or if they are cantankerous, unruly, and disruptive in the group". Goleman

(1997) points out that disliked children enter the peer group by force, want to change the topic of the play or conversation abruptly or too early, express their opinions unwelcomely or disagree with the others from the very beginning. He further explains that rejected and ignored children are not able to interpret emotional and social signals received from the environment, and even if they are, their repertoire of reactions to such signals is very limited. Therefore, the inability to receive stimulus significant for successful social interaction is typical of children who do not enjoy popularity among their peers. Goleman (1997: 388–389) discusses programs created for unpopular children by Asher and Williams (1987) and Nowicki (1989) aimed at improving skills crucial for forming friendships and acquiring the ability to interpret other children's feelings as well as the reaction to them. The programs succeeded in the enhancement of children's position in a peer group. The issue of unpopular children has also been studied by O'Connor (1969, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 296), who found out that severely withdrawn nursery school children having watched a 20-minute sound film that portrayed other children playing together happily, engaged in considerably more peer interaction.

Peer group performs a very important role in modeling various behaviors and providing both positive and negative reinforcement. As Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 296) state: "children play an important part as reinforcing agents and behavioral models for one another." In fact, by performing the role of behavioral models, they influence the behavior of the child in the future. It has been found that children willingly imitate models that are at the same age (Hicks 1965, as cited in Vasta 1995: 596). Eckerman and Stein (1990) observe that "[b]y means of imitate-in-turn and follow-the-leader games, youngsters gain a sense of connectedness, of other children being like themselves, and of successfully exerting social control over the behavior of others." On the other hand, Elkind and Weiner (1978: 269) claim that the widening interaction with their age-mates enables preschool children to become increasingly aware that they differ from each other. Goleman (1997: 421) agrees on that and adds that children attending kindergarten, enter the world of social comparisons, which are triggered not only by the change from the home environment to the nursery one, but also by the emergence of a new cognitive ability – the ability to compare with one another in terms of particular characteristics.

By the time preschoolers reach the ages of 4 and 5, they are turning increasingly to their peers rather than adults for attention and praise. They start to reward each other with signs of acceptance, approval, and affection (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 269). In this way they provide one another with positive reinforcement. As discussed by Vasta et al. (1995:

596), this can also take the form of offering help, praise, a smile or laughter, friendly emotions and fulfilling requests. Preschoolers also act as a source of punishment. They may reproach one another, refuse to fulfill the request, to approve one's action, or ignore and attack physically. The above system of reward and punishment led Hartup (1983, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 596) to the observation that children tend to repeat the behavior which has been positively reinforced and avoid the behavior which has been punished.

Success or lack of it in relationships with peers may be significant for the development of self-efficacy, which in turn may influence the attitude towards peers in the future (Vasta et al. 1995: 588). Peer group influences child's socialization. Due to the interaction with peers, he/she matures in terms of cognitive skills, forms long-lasting friendships, and follows provided models as well as responds to received reinforcements.

2.2.1.3. The development of self-regulation

The development of self-regulation, defined also as self-control, is one of the child's most impressive achievements. Self-control means that the child is aware of the requirements that are set by the environment and knows how to adjust his/her behavior to them (Vaughn et al. 1984). Initially children's behavior is controlled externally by parents and in the course of growing up, parents' outer control is transformed into inner self-directed control by the children themselves. Psychologists (Vasta et al. 1995: 537, Matczak 2003: 171–172) point to the direction of changes in the development of the child's social activity which evolves from outer regulation to inner. Acquiring independence from external motivating factors constitutes an important aspect in the child's social life. The process of internalizing motivation of social behaviors coincides with an increase in their stability and permanence (Matczak 2003: 172).

Bullock and Lütkenhaus (1988, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 538) observe that in the second year of life children's ability to monitor and correct their behaviors is not yet well developed. However, as noted by Schneider-Rosen and Wenz-Gross (1990, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 538), a two-year-old child tries to comply with orders and requests. At this age behavior remains to a greater extent under outer control. It is in the third year of life that self-control appears for the first time when the child objects to having everything done for him and insists on doing things on his/her own (Bullock and Lütkenhaus 1990, as cited

in Vasta et al. 1995: 538). The final stage takes place when the child internalizes control by directing his/her behavior in terms of thoughts rather than speech.

Following Van der Veer and Valsiner (1988), Vasta et al. (1995: 539) note that according to Vygotsky, self-regulation develops in the course of the child's social interactions. During early childhood, the regulation of the majority of the child's behaviors is carried out by means of orders and reinforcements coming from parents and other caretakers. However, gradually the child performs more and more activities under the influence of his/her own orders, hints, and sometimes even rewards and punishment given to himself/herself (Vasta et al. 1995: 537).

Parents play a very important role in a child's attainment of self-regulation. For as emphasized by Elkind and Weiner, it has to be taken into account that:

> Children are not born with a concept of right and wrong or with an understanding of what behavior is permissible and what is frowned up. The cognitive maturation that takes place during the preschool years and middle childhood gradually increases children's capacity to make social judgments and to control their behavior in light of these judgments (Elkind – Weiner 1978: 271).

Therefore, it is the ability to assess the social situation that is crucial for the development of the self-regulation mechanism. Elkind and Weiner (1978: 271) emphasize the importance of parents and their educational strategies and claim that "social judgment and self-control are shaped by how parents discipline their children and by the examples they set in their own behavior."

2.2.1.4. Children's prosocial behavior

As stated by Vasta et al. (1995: 587), a cognitive approach to development assumes that the level of the child's cognitive development determines to a great extent his/her behavior towards other people. They further notice that according to the proponents of this approach, older children should demonstrate more complex and mature forms of social behavior because of their higher level of cognitive maturity. Matczak (2003: 171) delineates the changes in the forms of social contacts and argues that they begin with the processes of receiving and transmitting information, then transform to a higher level of adjusting one's

own actions to the actions of other people, which later takes the form of cooperation. The two final stages comprise arranging and directing the others' actions and finally performing the action for the sake of other people.

As can be seen, social behavior aims at the development of altruistic behavior. If prosocial behavior depends on children's advancement in cognitive and emotional processes, then it should increase with age. Following Froming et al. (1985), Vasta et al. (1995: 501) state that older children are more capable of collaboration and helping others than younger ones. However, Pines (1979) found evidence of altruistic and prosocial behavior even in 2-year-old children.

The ability to understand a situation from another's viewpoint constitutes the basis of cognitive-developmental explanations of prosocial behavior (Vasta et al. 1995: 502). Taking another's viewpoint may entail assuming the physical, social and emotional perspective. However, Underwood and B. S. Moore (1982) and B. S. Moore and N. Eisenberg (1984) showed insignificant relations between the ability to take physical perspective and altruistic behavior. The research on taking a social perspective, that is the ability to recognize someone else's views and opinions, brought about more positive outcomes. Froming et al. (1985) and Chalmers and Townsend (1990) proved that those children who performed better in retelling a story from another character's viewpoint, displayed more altruism in their contacts with peers. Similar positive results were observed in the correlation between the ability to take the emotional perspective – understanding feelings and emotions of another person, and altruism (B. S. Moore and N. Eisenberg 1984, Bryant 1987).

2.2.2. Emotional development

Goleman (1997: 301) points out that success at school depends to a large extent on the child's emotional characteristics developed in the preschool period. Since cognitive and social factors play an important part in setting the tone for the emotional life of children, this part will illustrate emotions in children's lives as well as the development of the ability to control their feelings and regulate their expression.

2.2.2.1. Emotions in child's life

Emotions play a very important role in a child's development. According to Piaget (1966: 20), emotions and intelligence turn out to be inseparable and constitute two complementary aspects of any human behavior. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 272) claim that emotions are crucial to children's lives and help them organize their experiences in order to learn from them and develop other behaviors. Therefore, they should be central to the nursery school, preschool, and early elementary school curriculum. Jensen (1998: 79) is of the opinion that "good learning does not avoid emotions, it embraces them." He further notices that "the affective side of learning is the critical interplay between how we feel, act and think. There is no separation of the mind and emotions; emotions, thinking and learning are all linked" (Jensen 1998: 71). Hyson (1994: 2) is of a similar opinion and states that "[a] new generation of emotion researchers [developmental psychologists] has documented emotions' importance as organizers of children's behavior and learning." According to him, emotional and social development are closely intertwined in that all behavior, thought, and interaction are in some way motivated and colored by emotions. Thinking is an emotional activity, and emotions provide an essential scaffold for learning. In fact, children's feelings may support or impede their involvement in and mastery of intellectual content (Hyson 1994: 4). As can be seen emotions constitute an integral part of learning and have considerable impact on it. Therefore, they ought to be taken into account while teaching children.

It seems that people are biologically predisposed to be fearful, worried, surprised, joyful, happy and relieved. Very young infants express an array of emotions, e.g. happiness, sadness, distress, anger and surprise (Izard and Malatesta 1987). Other facial expressions that appear with greater frequency during toddlerhood and preschool years include pride, shame, shyness, embarrassment, contempt, fear, and guilt. With progressive age, children can demonstrate and verbally express their more complex feelings (Ricks 1979). As children grow older, that is in parallel with the enrichment of their cognitive system, there are more and more things or ideas, towards which children develop certain attitudes. It is suggested by Matczak (2003: 133) that the importance and amount of cognitive sources of emotions are enhanced. Emotions reflect the attitude of a child towards the environment. They enable him/her to find something he/she is interested in, at the same time influencing action and motivation to do certain things.

The older the child, the more he/she learns about emotions and is more capable of matching facial pictures with the correct emotion label. It is believed that by 3 years of age,

children are able to decode and label other's emotions correctly (Fox and Stifter 2005: 239). Furthermore, they are able to label and generate appropriate situations for positive emotions before negative ones. However, in preschoolers, grasping the causes and consequences of emotions is a rather complex process. Stein and Jewett (1986) notice that it is older children that can identify why people feel the way they do – sad, happy, surprised, fearful or angry. Preschoolers, on the other hand, are characterized by the ability to accurately identify the emotions when given familiar situations, and to describe an appropriate situation when given an emotion (Lagattuta et al. 1997). Past research suggested that it is not until 8 or 9 years of age that children can begin to understand mental rather than situational causes of feelings. However, recent research by Lagattuta et al. (1997) demonstrates that much younger children can understand the emotional consequences of past experiences when cued cognitively.

Hyson (1994) is of the opinion that as young children develop emotionally, they require help in understanding these emotions in a secure environment, in modeling of appropriate emotional response, and in regulating their emotions. A significant part in shaping children's emotional life is played by parents and other caregivers. Demo and Cox (2000) and Wintre and Vallance (1994) observe that through social interactions children acquire guidelines that mentally or cognitively mediate their inner experience of emotion and their outer expression of it. Fox and Stifter (2005: 240), discussing the role of emotions, especially within family context, emphasize that they constitute an important tool for teaching young children about emotions in themselves and others, and for dealing with emotionally charged events. Matczak (2003: 137) maintains that because preschoolers are characterized by a considerable emotional excitability, they show strong emotional reactions to relatively weak stimuli. Therefore, they need to learn how to regulate and control their emotions. In order to achieve that, they need to undergo the process of emotional socialization, which parents have the greatest impact on. N. Eisenberg et al. (2001) investigated the relationship between parental emotional expressivity (both toward the child and within the home setting) and children's adjustment as well as social competence. It turned out that children who had supportive parents exhibiting warmth and positive emotions displayed social competence, emotional understanding, prosocial behaviors, higher self-esteem and were more likely to learn self-regulation of emotions earlier as well as to develop appropriate emotional strategies and behaviors. Similar results were obtained by Demo and Cox (2000). The process of acquiring emotional self-regulation will be the subject of our next section.

2.2.2.2. Emotional regulation

Emotional development entails not only the appearance of various emotions, but also the ability to understand and communicate emotions in a socially accepted way. Psychologists (e.g. Malatesta et al. 1989) claim that in the early years of childhood there is a strong correlation between what a child feels and what he/she expresses. Children's affect perfectly reflects their emotions. According to Saarni (1979), for preschoolers, abiding by the cultural or display rules that signify when to hide or substitute an experienced emotion for prosocial reasons is a difficult task. Deliberate holding back of feelings is almost impossible for children until after age 3. The process of learning how to control one's own expression develops gradually and unevenly.

Malatesta and Haviland (1982) claim that emotional socialization entails a complex understanding of display rules prevailing in a given culture, which imply society's expectations and attitudes to emotional expression, as well as social context and gender expectations. It also requires "a certain level of cognitive ability and awareness of cultural or social standards" (Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 265). Fox and Stifter (2005: 240) observe that the above mentioned abilities develop rapidly in school-age children, and girls assimilate these rules into their repertoire sooner than boys. However, the ability to communicate emotions does not appear at a specified point in time. As discussed by Friedlmeier and Trommsdorff (1999), developmental experts and parents across cultures have different beliefs regarding the age at which children are expected to control their own emotions. The ability develops as a result of interactions with parents, caretakers and peers. "These interactions are embedded within the larger cultural context, which also exerts a socializing influence" (Fox and Stifter 2005: 240).

Emotional socialization occurs not only due to interactions, but also through the two already mentioned processes – modeling and reinforcement. According to Dunn et al. (1987), older children usually learn how to identify emotions in everyday experiences (see also Smiley and Huttenlocher 1989). Younger ones, especially one-year-olds use the information contained in others' facial expression to regulate their own behavior – a process known as social referencing (Feinman 1992). Dickstein and Parke (1988) and Hirshberg and Svejda (1990) observe that infants very often look at their mothers (or fathers), searching for hints when they are uncertain as to their further action.

Hyson (1994) emphasizes the importance of helping children learn desirable ways of expressing feelings and develop healthy patterns of understanding and regulating their

emotions. The provided guidance refers not only to positive emotion, but also to negative ones. N. Eisenberg et al. (2001) suggest that "[s]ome exposure to negative emotions – expressed appropriately and on a limited basis – is important for learning about emotions and how to regulate them. The expression of such nonhostile emotions as sadness, embarrassment and distress has been positively associated with showing sympathy." The concept of the self, which will be discussed in the following section, might also have an influence on the development of emotional self-regulation by children. Stipek et al. (1992) point out that young children gain the ability to inhibit their behaviors in the absence of caretakers only when they develop self-conscious (such as embarrassment) and self-evaluative (such as pride or shame) emotions. Having developed them, they are able to evaluate objects and behavior in terms of some established standards. In this way, outer parental control becomes self-control.

During the preschool years, as social interactions expand, children participate in emotional communication and gradually gain the ability to understand the causes and consequences of emotions, which runs parallel with deepening their knowledge of the rules that govern their expression. Each of these abilities constitute, what Goleman (1997) calls, a part of emotional intelligence, which is crucial for future relations with significant others and understanding their and one's own inner emotionality.

2.2.3. Personality

Personality factors affect a child's learning and performance. Therefore, it is necessary for the purpose of the present work to take a closer look at personality development in childhood. There are diverse theories attempting to define personality development. One of the most outstanding is Erikson's (1963) theory of psychosocial development, which will be tackled in the first subsection.

The following subsections deal with the occurrence of two personality features: self-esteem and self-efficacy, which evolve concurrently with the child's cognitive and socio-emotional development. We will discuss their importance for shaping the child's personality.

2.2.3.1. Psychosocial development

Erikson (1963, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 42) presents human development within a social context. He claims that personality develops over the entire life span and proposes eight major stages of psychosocial development, which are common to people coming from all cultures and societies. Every individual goes through these maturational stages from birth to old age, each of which poses a unique developmental task and confronts him/her with a crisis or challenge that they must resolve. According to Erikson (1968: 286, as quoted in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 42), a crisis is not "a threat of catastrophe but a turning point, a crucial period of increased vulnerability and heightened potential." Successful resolution of the crisis signifies the individual's ability to move onto the next stage as well as his/her potential for facing future challenges. Erikson and Erikson (1997) state that conflict and tension are sources of growth, strength, and commitment.

Erikson's theory holds that each part of the personality has a particular period in the life span when it should emerge if it is going to emerge at all. Should a given personality trait not develop on time, the individual's personality development as well as his/her ability to deal effectively with reality are hindered. Therefore, crises inappropriately resolved will continue to reappear throughout the individual's life. However, as Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 43) put it: "Erikson's portrait of the life cycle allows 'second chances' for opportunities missed and paths not taken." Since the first four stages of development occur during childhood, they will be discussed below following Williams and Burden (1997: 31–32) and Tavris and Wade (1999 [1995]: 436).

The successful mastery of the first stage culminates in a preponderance of trust. This period concerns early infancy and entails the development of trust in one's self, parents or other caregivers, and the world. The child needs constant care in order to achieve a sense of security and peace. If these needs are not fulfilled, a sense of mistrust and suspiciousness become internalized.

By the age of 2 or 3 the child faces the challenge of gaining autonomy as opposed to feeling shame or doubt. The child attempts to be independent from parents and caregivers, simultaneously searching for the feeling of self-competence and positive attitude towards his/her own abilities. The way the child attains autonomy should be devoid of a feeling of shame and doubt as to his/her skills.

The third stage, referring to the ages of 4 to 5, entails the development of the ability to formulate a plan of action and carry it through. At that time the child faces tension be-

tween initiative and guilt. He/she acquires new skills, both in the physical and psychological domain, sets himself/herself new aims and enjoys various exploratory activities. Caretakers' support in that will definitely nurture the child's initiative, whereas the lack of it or punishment will generate a feeling of guilt.

The fourth stage relates to early school years and constitutes the time when the feeling of industry or inferiority is internalized. The former results from a successful mastery of basic educational skills, the latter – from ineffective learning experiences. Williams and Burden (1997: 31) point out that competitive situations are more conducive to the generation of feelings of inferiority than are situations infused with individualized and cooperative learning. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to FL teachers of young learners that they create cooperative rather than competitive atmosphere in a FL classroom, which will be propitious for the development of a sense of industry.

Williams and Burden (1997: 33) notice that Erikson's theory is important to educators for many reasons. First of all, it treats learning and development as long term, rather than pertaining to a particular phase of one's life. Secondly, it emphasizes the role of others in helping to resolve conflicts successfully. Furthermore, learning is viewed as a "cumulative process" where coping with one set of challenges exerts influence on the way we deal with future tasks. Finally, the theory holds that education embraces the whole person, including his/her emotions and feelings.

2.2.3.2. Self-esteem

Elkind and Weiner (1978: 256) posit that, as a consequence of their cognitive development, young children become increasingly aware of themselves as individuals and begin to form new attitudes toward themselves. These may take the form of both positive and negative ones. In this way children's self-esteem emerges, which can be defined as the evaluation which one makes and maintains with regard to himself/herself. The development of a sense of self as separate and distinct from others is a central issue of child's early years, as reported by Asendorpf et al. (1996). According to Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 273), "this fundamental cognitive change facilitates numerous other changes in social development," e.g. young children come to view themselves as active agents who produce outcomes. Self-esteem provides also "the cognitive basis for our identities" (Cross and Markus 1991, as

quoted in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 273). Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 273) note that it helps the child to gain the capacity to observe, respond to and direct his/her own behavior.

Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 273) following Hong and Perkins (1997) state that enhancing children's self-esteem is an important goal for parents and preschool educators. They add that children's self-esteem may have lifelong effects on their attitudes and behavior, performance in school, relationships with family, and functioning in society. In fact, forming emotionally positive relationships with parents and significant others is a key task in the development of a child's sense of self-awareness (Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 271). Children's self-esteem is shaped by teachers, parents and peers. It develops as a reflection of what others think about the child. For example, Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 274) claim that "parents' facial expressions, tone of voice, and patient or impatient interactions reflect how the parents value each child."

C. N. Johnson (1990, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 274) observes that during the preschool years, young children perceive the self strictly in physical terms – body parts (the head), material attributes ("I have blue eyes"), and bodily activities ("I walk to the park"). According to Damon and Hart (1982), children view the self and the mind as simply parts of the body. Inagaki and Hatano (1993) add that it is between 6 and 8 years of age that they begin to distinguish between the mind and the body. They start to recognize other people as individuals not only because of their different appearance, but for the reason that they have different thoughts and feelings. Therefore, as Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 274) conclude, children come to define the self in internal rather than external terms and grasp the difference between psychological and physical attributes.

Harter (1988) maintains that children under the age of 8 do not have a fully developed sense of self-esteem. However, the level of preschoolers' self-acceptance is relatively high and, as Cassidy (1988) notes, is related to the unconditional attachment to mothers, and, according to M. Fischer and Leitenberg (1986), to a generally optimistic vision of the future. It is during puberty that the level of self-esteem decreases. At that time, self-awareness and a critical evaluation with regard to oneself are increasing. According to Kuhn (1960, as cited in Birch and Malim 2002: 110), as children grow up, their self-esteem becomes more and more dependent on the influence of social factors. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to be sensitive to young learners in order not to impair their self-esteem. Children with high self-esteem will be definitely better language learners than those with low self-esteem.

According to Williams and Burden (1997: 97):

> As young children begin to construct a more or less stable view of the world, so they begin to develop an awareness of themselves as individuals and an understanding of their place within that world. This developing self-concept in turn comes to influence the ways in which they try to make sense of other aspects of their world. The relationship is reciprocal: individual's views of the world influence their self-concept, while at the same time their self-concepts affect their views of the world. Both of these views will affect their success in learning situations.

As can be seen, self-esteem has a great impact on the development of the child, on the way he/she perceives the environment and therefore also potentially on his/her success in second language acquisition.

2.2.3.3. Self-efficacy

Parallel with cognitive and social development, children develop yet another aspect of personality, namely self-efficacy. The concept is related to the feelings of mastery the child experiences while accomplishing a task. According to Elkind and Weiner (1978: 258), it begins to be shaped during infancy by the pleasure infants derive from becoming able to control their environment. Since the completion of the task provides pleasure, the feeling of mastery tends to induce further attempts at achievement. In that sense it is a self-perpetuating activity.

It is believed that children are not capable of feeling any permanent sense of accomplishment until the preschool years. It is between the ages 2 and 5 that self-efficacy develops increasingly (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 259). Once their cognitive level enables them to see the difference between past and present levels of skill, they are able to apply standards of excellence to their own performance and perceive their experiences as achievements. According to Vasta et al. (1995: 532), self-efficacy is usually highest among preschoolers and its estimation gradually diminishes towards the fourth grade of primary school.

Bandura proposed a self-evaluation model based on the concept of self-efficacy and a feeling of mastery. It implies the subjective evaluation of one's own abilities to perform various actions (Bandura 1977, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 521). Parents play an important role in helping children develop a sense of self-efficacy. Vasta et al. (1995: 259) refer to McClelland et al. (1953) and Atkinson (1958), who have found that high achievement motivation is stimulated by strong parental encouragement of achievement accompanied by

moderate demands for independence and a warm, supportive parent-child relationship. The findings emphasize the importance of preschoolers achieving self-confidence in performing tasks and facing new challenges with eagerness and independence. The instructions and training provided by parents, as well as numerous trial and error attempts, enable the child to gradually learn the limits of his/her capabilities. In this way the child becomes able to estimate his/her self-efficacy.

Two mechanisms are conducive to the appropriate development of self-efficacy. These are modeling, due to which children learn how to estimate the likelihood of success in performing the task, and being aware of one's physiological reactions. Bandura is of the opinion that the stronger the sense of self-efficacy, the greater effort and perseverance, as well as the higher level of performing the task (Vasta et al. 1995: 521).

The above suggests that self-efficacy is shaped under the influence of parents' and other caretakers' verbal instructions, experiencing success and failure, the observation of appropriate models and monitoring the internal reactions of one's physiology.

2.3. Play in child's development

An important role in children's development is performed by play; it is a fundamental element of childhood. As Cook (2000: 3) notes: "(…) it is evident that children everywhere, left to their own devices, devote their time to play (…)." Before we discuss the types and roles of play, let us try to define it.

2.3.1. Defining play

Huizinga (1985: 48), in his classical definition, emphasizes that play is a voluntary activity performed within certain time and space limits, according to voluntarily accepted, but unconditionally binding rules; it is a goal in its own, accompanied by a sense of tension, joy and the awareness of distinctness from everyday life. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 265) provide a similar definition and state that play consists of "voluntary activities done for enjoyment and recreation that are not performed for any sake beyond themselves." Therefore, play can be defined as an activity done for its own sake. Moreover, the process of playing is more important than any goal or final result.

Play constitutes a term that is closely connected to ‘game’. Siek-Piskozub (2001: 20) notes that these two concepts co-occur in the literature of psychological, didactic and cultural studies. The fact that the distinction between play and game is not enough clear and consistent provides one of the explanations for the above state of affairs. The term ‘play’ is broader than ‘game’, which means that the former embraces the latter. Game, as observed by Siek-Piskozub (2001: 28), is a concrete implementation of play. She draws our attention to two main features, which need to appear for a given action to become a game. First of all, there needs to be a form of open competition between participating individuals or teams. Secondly, there has to be a set of arbitrary rules peculiar to a given game. Siek-Piskozub (2001: 27), following Piasecki (1922: 17), maintains that in the course of evolution, the majority of playful action turns into games. In the early stages of play development, the child focuses on the activity itself and minimizes its aim or final result. Gradually, he/she begins to notice its outcome, which repeatedly has been propitious for success. The result starts to become a goal in itself. According to Okoń (1987: 160–161, as cited in Siek-Piskozub 2001: 27), the evolution of play is based on a gradual enhancement of the result’s importance.

Smith (2005: 344), after a longitudinal studying of child play (1978), identifies several characteristics of play. He mentions the flexibility of objects being put in new combinations, the roles acted out in new ways, the positive affect which evinces itself in children smiling and laughing, and expressing pleasure from play, and finally the pretence which is implied by the use of objects and actions in non-literal ways. Play is especially important to children and their education. Its ubiquity in childhood suggests significant benefits for the overall development. Mans (2002: 61) is of the opinion that “play is a way of learning, of being and expressing, one which we as educators need to rediscover, reinvent, and employ.” It has to be born in mind that play is not a permanent construct, but evolves dynamically. Its evolution runs parallel to children’s cognitive and socio-emotional development. The issue of what types of play emerge in the course of its evolution will be tackled in the following section.

2.3.2. Types of play

If we were to follow the opinions of theoreticians concerned with play, we would come across their attempts to classify it. As Siek-Piskozub (2001: 173) notices, the classification

is made according to various, very often interrelated criteria. Therefore, the author perceives play as a phenomenon which is difficult to categorize. However, in our discussion we will focus on categories appropriate to child development following Piaget (1959), Smilansky (1968), Smith (2005), Takata (1974), Matczak (2003) and Parten (1932).

One may distinguish between the classifications of play based on cognitive development versus social development. Let us begin with the types of play which emerge as a result of children's cognitive development. Piaget (1959, as cited in Siek-Piskozub 2001: 42) is of the opinion that the development of play and intelligence is closely connected. He identifies three main structures which characterize a child's play and describe its classification. These are sensorimotor practice, symbol and rule. The sensorimotor play puts emphasis on practice and movement control, and involves experimenting with objects using the sense of sight and touch (see section 2.1.4.1.). It consists of simple and repetitive action performed for the sake of the pleasure derived from showing one's own emerging dexterity. Symbolic play, which corresponds with the preoperational stage (see section 2.1.4.2.), entails the child's ability to treat objects/people as something/someone else. The child exploits his/her imagination and enjoys using a given object as a symbol of another. Finally, the child moves into the concrete operational stage (see section 2.1.4.3.), where there is a preponderance of role play. This type of play helps the child to follow rules and procedures. Elkind and Weiner (1978: 380) emphasize that children who are able to perform concrete operations can learn and follow rules that have been formulated by others. Hence, the child abiding by the rules in play becomes accustomed to obeying them and consequently goes into society.

Another classification taking into account the cognitive level of the child has been developed by Smilansky (1968, as cited in Smith 2005: 344), who distinguishes functional play, which is congruent with Piaget's sensorimotor one. The author also refers to constructive play, which involves manipulating objects or toys to create something else. There is also thematic (symbolic or dramatic) play which corresponds with preoperational stage. Smith (2005: 344) points out that this emerges at about 15 months of age and begins with simple actions, e.g. "putting a dolly to bed", that develop gradually into story sequences and role play. Finally, there is a move into the play by rules, which corresponds to the concrete operational stage. A similar categorization has been proposed by Takata (1974, as cited in Siek-Piskozub 2001: 173), which, analogous to Smilansky's, reflects Piaget's stages of children's cognitive development. He divides play into sensorimotor, symbolic (simple constructions), dramatic (complex constructions), games, and recreational. Yet another

classification is offered by Matczak (2003: 260–262), who begins with unspecified manipulative play, where the child deals with objects regardless of their characteristics. At the end of the first year of age this type of play transforms into specified manipulative one adjusted to the objects' peculiarities. Further on, the child is involved in constructive play, which improves receptive skills and his/her ability to anticipate the results of one's action as well as persistence in fulfilling one's intentions. The author also distinguishes thematic play and states that it enables the child to understand the reality and acquire knowledge of demands set on particular social roles. It therefore constitutes an integral part of cognition.

As can be observed, during the first two years, children's play shifts from the simple manipulation of objects to an exploration of the objects' unique properties and to make-believe play involving ever more complex and cognitively demanding behaviors (Uzgiris and Raeff 1995). Thematic play has drawn preschool years' researchers' marked attention. It has been proven that in the preschool time its frequency and complexity increases. Furthermore, this type of play has a considerable impact on a child's cognitive development and his/her relationships with peers (Fein 1981). Between the ages 3 and 7 many children engage in a form of make-believe play in which they create an imaginary friend who becomes an integral element of their daily lives. Taylor et al. (2004, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 266–267) define that as an invisible character whom children give a name, who they refer to in conversations, and play with in an air of reality that lacks an objective basis. Vander Zanden et al. (2007: 267) state that usually firstborns and very intelligent children have imaginary friends. Eventually, children outgrow their imaginary companion as they interact with peers. The above refers to the peculiarity of play observed by Okoń (1987: 18), who notices that play has two dimensions of action, one real and the other fictitious. Therefore, imagination is a powerful tool in children's play in the preschool years and allows for going beyond the real world and probing various possibilities.

As far as the social aspect of play is concerned, one can observe an interesting development. Parten (1932, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 593) enumerates the following categories of play in terms of their social level and involvement. Observational play is based on watching others play a game. Solitary play means that children play simultaneously, sometimes imitating one another, but they never come into interaction (see also Birch and Malim 2002: 30). Then, around the age of 3, children move into the so called parallel play, which involves solitary play near others and sharing toys, but without any interaction or cooperation. Associative play (also referred to as parallel play) means that children are involved in common play, they share toys and materials, but without the assigned roles or previously

set goal. It is at the age of four that play becomes socialized. Birch and Malim (2002: 30) observe that in the above mentioned type of play, there might be occasional interactions, which later turn into cooperation. Ultimately, there is a move into cooperative play which involves interaction, communication and taking turns. Children play in well organized groups, they set goals and assign roles to particular members of the group.

Recent research (Hartup 1983, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 594; Paludi 2002, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 265–266) proves that the same categories of play as proposed by Parten (1932) can still be observed. However, as Vasta et al. (1995: 594), following Smith (1978), suggest, some children move directly from solitary to cooperative play and omit the stage of parallel play. They further add, after Tieszen (1979), that earlier categories do not necessarily have to disappear with age. Tieszen observed that solitary and parallel play still appear among 4- and 5-year-olds. This means that despite an overall pattern of play development, individual children may opt for individual variation, e.g. by keeping earlier categories of play in their repertoire.

2.3.3. Functions of play

As observed by various researchers, play performs several important functions in children's development. Birch and Malim (2002: 29) are of the opinion that it has a great impact on children's psychological development. Piaget (1959) believed that play constitutes an expression of the assimilation process, where the child attempts to acquire knowledge of the world by adjusting it to the already possessed experience. Vygotsky (1967), on the other hand, considered play as a primary factor of a child's general development, stressing its rules. He maintained that play is tantamount to the zone of proximal development, where the child can function at a level slightly higher than his/her present capabilities and explore adults' roles, as well as get to know various socio-cultural norms. When faced with a given difficulty, the child subconsciously transforms it into a playful situation, which will be easier to tackle.

Early childhood professionals regard play as a primary way for children to communicate their deepest feelings (Erikson 1977, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 267). Furthermore, as noted by Ray and Bratton (2001), in therapeutic play, children demonstrate behaviors, reveal innermost feelings, and express thoughts, which, as research studies confirm, decreases anxiety and aggression, and on the other hand, increases expression of emo-

tions, social adjustment, and a sense of control. Gardner (1982, as cited in Birch and Malim 2002: 29) claims that play enables children to understand the world, to cope with problems and fear, to better understand themselves and the relation between themselves and the world, and to gradually discover the relation between reality and imagination.

According to common beliefs, a child engages in play activity for mere pleasure. And yet, apart from giving pleasure, play stimulates a child's development and that is why a child, according to Matczak (2003: 263), should not only be allowed to play, but also guided in this field. The first playful activities occur with parents, whose role is to scaffold children in their early play actions. Once the child enters kindergarten, he/she becomes involved in the bustling world of childhood play. It is now that children spend more and more time with peers interacting and cooperating during play. Therefore, play is especially important for social and personality development during the preschool years. Elkind and Weiner (1978: 270) maintain that "through the use of toys and games youngsters learn about each other as people and how to handle interpersonal relationships." They learn to be creative, master socialization skills such as following rules, acting cooperatively, leading and following, and making friends ("The Case for Elementary School Recess" 2001, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 266). Siek-Piskozub (1995: 18, following Okoń 1987, Włodarski and Matczak 1992) concludes that play enables a child to satisfy individual needs and interests, to go into society and to get to know reality.

Research in children's play shows that play constitutes an integral element of children's education. Cook (2000: 107) points out that "play performs an educational role by increasing general flexibility, thereby allowing humans to develop, both as individuals and societies, a greater understanding of their environment, and more creative responses to it." Children have a great need to play and move around. That is why it is a challenge for a teacher to prepare varied activities which contain an element of fun and play. Scott and Ytreberg (1990: 6) observe that "children have an amazing ability to absorb language through play and other activities which they find enjoyable." It is the teacher's role to create an appropriate and congenial environment for learning and to provide materials which would make the child willing to explore.

In recent years pretend play has captivated the interest of many psychologists who have perceived make-believe and fantasy behavior as an avenue for exploring the "inner person" of the child and as an indicator of underlying cognitive changes (Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 266). Until the age of 3 pretend play is usually imitative of adults' behaviors and roles. Smith (2005: 345) points out that such play might serve as a valuable practice of the

adult activities. In this way it prepares children for future life. However, as Leslie (1987, as cited in Smith 2005: 344) argues, pretend play is an early indicator of the theory of mind abilities. Children learn that other people may have different beliefs and ideas, and that a given object may act as something else. The representation that 'this is a banana' becomes 'this banana is a telephone.' According to the theory of mind as proposed by Feigl (1958), the above representation is related to the representation that "X believes that the banana is a telephone" (Smith 2005: 345). Important as pretence might be in the theory of mind acquisition, the nature of any relationship between pretend play and theory of mind is still disputed (Smith 2005: 345).

In view of the above, play constitutes a significant element of childhood. It has a great impact on the overall development of children in terms of cognitive and socio-emotional changes. It also contributes to the learning process.

2.4. Final comments

This chapter has focused on the cognitive and socio-emotional development of the child. It has to be born in mind that each sphere of development influences the other and in this way they form a system of reciprocal relations. Children's cognition develops due to their interaction with the environment. The drive towards equilibration, attained by assimilation and accommodation, constitutes a major force in cognitive development. We have also emphasized the constructive nature of the learning process. While going through developmental stages, the child develops new mental operations, expands cognitive structures, and gradually attains the capability of abstract thinking. Furthermore, children enhance their attentive abilities and memory potential. At each stage, they form concepts, which enable them to detach from the concrete environment. In order to function in society, the child has to overcome egocentrism, which imposes significant limitations on his/her cognition and communication.

A child's potential evinces itself in what he/she can achieve in collaboration with another person whose level of knowledge and skills is above the child's present capabilities. The fact that children interact with an increasing number of people has important implications for their socialization process. Therefore, the social aspects of development and the importance of interaction in acquiring social competence have been emphasized. Apart from discussing the reasons why children play an active part in the socialization, we have

also stressed the roles performed by its other agents, namely parents and peers. Parents provide models first for imitation and then for identification. Children's relationships with them influence their relations with peers. Peer groups model various behaviors and provide reinforcements, consequently shaping children's further social behavior.

One of the most important developmental achievements, as far as social competence is concerned, is the ability of self-control and of self-regulating one's own behavior. This is accomplished with the help of parents and caregivers, and their educational strategies. Once the child is able to direct his/her actions, he/she exhibits more and more acts of prosocial behavior. Since social development involves changes in the emotional sphere, we have discussed the roles of emotions in children's lives and emphasized that they help children organize their behavior and learning. However, preschoolers' affect reflects their emotions and feelings. The process of emotional regulation, that is, abiding by display rules prevailing in a given culture and society, develops gradually and accelerates among school-age children.

As a consequence of cognitive and socio-emotional development, children develop their personality. At each stage of development, they face a crisis, the resolution of which leads to the emergence of particular personality traits, i.e. a sense of trust, independence, initiative and industry. Apart from that, children's self-esteem emerges and facilitates other changes in psychological development. In preschool years, another personality feature appears, namely self-efficacy, which makes the child undertake further attempts at achievement. We have also focused on the ubiquity of play in childhood, as well as its dynamic evolution, and presented its categories which result from cognitive and social development. Special emphasis has been put on thematic play, whose frequency and complexity increases in preschool years. At that time play is especially important for social and personality development.

The above considerations enabled us to show the cognitive and socio-emotional changes that occur on the child's route to higher developmental achievements. It has to be born in mind that each child follows his/her own individual developmental pattern. Still, it is possible to discern general phenomena that are peculiar to the psychological area. Since cognitive and socio-emotional maturation is related to the child's communicative growth, it is now that we are in good stead for discussing his/her linguistic development, with special emphasis on the communicative domain.

Chapter 3: The linguistic development of the child

3.0. Introduction

Every human child, if following a normal course of physical and psychological development, stands a chance of mastering his or her native tongue. To many people learning a language seems to be like developing one of the basic instincts. In fact, language constitutes the most complex ability a child will ever acquire. For this reason, the following part of the dissertation will illustrate the developmental course of child's language. First, we will present the psychological viewpoint and discuss the nature of child's speech focusing on the distinction between speech, language and communication. Further, we will describe the controversy over egocentric speech with reference to research, which signifies that this speech might be socialized even in the early interactions. It is then that we show the linguistic perspective on language, beginning with the development of child's L1 competence with special emphasis on early auditory and phonological as well as syntactic and morphological development. Next, we will refer to child's discourse development in L1. Functions of child's language will be shown, as well as his/her conversational skills, including the development of turn-taking mechanism, the ways of dealing with breakdowns in conversation, the ability to apply cohesive devices, and the categories of utterances which build meaningful and sustained talk exchanges between children. Moreover, the development of child's L2 competence will be presented. We will attempt to draw the analogy between L2 development and L1 acquisition, discuss the acquisition order peculiar for L2 and present the phenomenon of interference between the learner's first and second language. Finally, research findings concerning child L2 discourse occurring both in natural and instructional

setting will be introduced, as well as the results of studies devoted to teaching a foreign language to children conducted in Poland.

3.1. Child's speech

Since the issue of child's communicative development in the educational context constitutes the major concern of the present dissertation, this section will deal with the nature of children's speech, including the debate over egocentric speech. In order to avoid confusion caused by the relationships between the three terms, i.e. speech, language and communication, an attempt will also be made to define them.

3.1.1. Speech, language and communication

Owens (1984: 3) defines speech as a mode or a verbal means of communicating or expressing meaning, involving accurate neuromuscular coordination, voice quality, intonation, rate, as well as gestures, facial expressions and body posture. Speech development seems to be a complex process. In fact, as noted by Kent (2005: 249), it lacks a specified beginning and ending, starting to emerge in the womb and reaching its final stage of maturation in late adolescence. It is usually described in terms of the mastery of phonemes, which are further combined to form the units of the ambient language that will be used for verbal communication. However, phonemes do not reflect the full spectrum of speech ability and behavior. According to Kent, one should also take into account the interplay of units of different kinds and sizes such as phonetic features, syllables and words.

In the first year of life, children are involved in experimenting with the vocal mechanism, thus producing a great variety of sounds, which steadily come to resemble the language of the child's environment. Therefore, speech development, as pointed out by Kent (2005: 250), "opens the door to the power of language, which some believe to be the most distinctive feature of humans." Yet, children, in order to benefit from the numerous facets of social communication, must develop a linguistic code. Without it, their speech is devoid of meaning. Owens (1984: 3) explains that the relationship between linguistic forms, meaning and use is specified by language. In his opinion, language "can be defined

as a socially shared code or conventional system for representing concepts through the use of arbitrary symbols and rule-governed combinations of those symbols." The existence of language depends on the symbols that are used and on the rules, which can be either followed or altered by its users. Owens (1984: 4) points to the procedural nature of language, claiming that "language is not merely a set of static rules; it is a process of use and modification within the context of communication." Owing to rules, we can use language creatively, producing an infinite number of sentences out of a finite set of symbols and rules governing symbol combinations. However, the process of language construction is limited by the communicative context in which it is used.

Communication, in simple terms, is the process of exchanging information between participants. It requires a sender and a receiver, and involves such processes as encoding, transmitting and decoding the message. Canale (1983: 3–4), following Widdowson (1978), characterizes communication as a form of social interaction, normally acquired and used in social interaction, involving a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message, which takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances. It is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions. Communication, as further defined by Canale, is a purposeful activity attempting, for example, to establish social relations, to persuade or to promise something. It involves authentic as opposed to textbook-contrived language and is assessed as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes. Each interlocutor must be sensitive to the needs and expectations of the other to guarantee that messages are conveyed successfully and that intended meanings are maintained. Owens (1984: 5) holds that "speech and language are only a portion of communication." Therefore, we may conclude that both speech and language constitute parts of the larger process of communication.

3.1.2. Egocentric speech

According to Elkind and Weiner (1978: 240–241) "language is such a multifaceted accomplishment that perhaps there can be no one, all encompassing explanation of its attainment." Although it is difficult to explain the development of children's language, many psychologists and linguists have tried to discover its typical features. Piaget (1992 [1923])

maintained that children's speech till the age of 7 is characterized by egocentrism. At this stage, a child speaks to himself/herself in the form of monologue, which accompanies action and play and is not an attempt at communication. Piaget (1966: 26) called such language egocentric speech and observed that it constitutes 1/3 of spontaneous utterances of children between 3 and 4 years old and it gradually diminishes till the age of 7.

A child is not interested whether somebody listens to his speech or not. What is more, a child speaks about himself and, as pointed out by Elkind and Weiner (1978: 242), "is not able to take the position of another person when it differed from his or her own." M. Harris and Coltheart (1986: 73) declare that children are entangled in their own point of view when they are trying to explain their own thoughts, or to understand those of others. The ability to take the listener's point of view is called by Elkind and Weiner (1978) "referential communication skills." Piaget was one of the first investigators that dealt with referential communication skills. He observed young children often speaking at rather than to one another (Elkind and Weiner 1978: 241).

Another psychologist who focused in his research on egocentric speech was Vygotsky (1962). He claimed that egocentric speech is an important element of a child's cognitive development and it is an instrument of the child's self-control of his/her own behavior (Krakowian 2000: 50). As observed by Rizzo and Corsaro (1988, as cited in Vasta et al. 1995: 538), according to Vygotsky, this speech is socialized from the beginning and emerges as a result of the child's interactions with parents, with whom he/she performs various tasks. First, parents' speech directs the child's behavior and then it is egocentric speech that the child uses for controlling his/her actions and as a tool of intellectual adaptation. In fact, as stated by Krakowian (2000: 49–50) following Vygotsky (1962), egocentric speech exists alongside the socialized, communicative one. Gradually, egocentric speech becomes internalized and continues to exist in the form of inner speech.

Piaget did not hold with Vygotsky's idea. He distinguished two phases in the development of children's language. The first one has already been mentioned, that is egocentric speech and it is around the age of 7 that this speech becomes socialized. Therefore, as observed by Piaget (1992: 164), from the age of 7 or 8, socialized speech becomes habitual.

3.1.3. Socialized speech

Elkind and Weiner (1978: 241) emphasize the fact that in order "to communicate effectively, however, the child must, to some extent, take into account the listener's perspective." Only then is a child able to use speech to communicate, to inform the interlocutor about something which may lead to taking part in a dialogue (Piaget 1992: 51). Miller (1963: 155) informs us that "while egocentric speech is manifested in echolalia, monologues, and collective monologues, socialized responses can take the form of informational statements, criticism, commands, questions and answers."

The age of 7 is a breakthrough period in cognitive development (see section 2.1.4.3.). Piaget (1966: 45) claimed that above this age children become able to cooperate in communication, because they do not confuse their points of view with the points of view of their listeners. It is reflected by children's language. Discussions, understanding the interlocutor's point of view and attempt at finding one's own supporting arguments become possible. Piaget (1966: 45) maintained that egocentric speech disappears completely and gives rise to spontaneous utterances, which, due to their grammatical structure, hint at the need for connecting and justifying ideas.

The transition from egocentric to socialized speech happens in parallel with the transition from intuitive to operational thinking. According to Piaget (1966: 35), till the age of 7, a child remains prelogical and replaces logic with intuition (see section 2.1.4.2.). There is an irreversibility of thinking, and yet speech makes the child able to reconstruct the past and anticipate future actions, which further leads to reversibility (Piaget 1966: 38).

However, as noted by Vander Zanden et al. (2007), recent research suggests that children are far more aware of the needs and intentions of their listeners than Piaget maintained. Garvey and Hogan (1973, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 254) found that during the greater part of the time children 3 to 5 years of age spend in a nursery school, they interact with others largely by talking. While some of their speech is private speech (directed toward themselves or nobody else in particular), most of their speech is mutually responsive and adapted to the speech or nonverbal behavior of a partner (Spilton and Lee 1977, as cited in Vander Zanden et al. 2007: 254). Similar observations were made by Keenan (1983: 4) who believes that "young children do engage in meaningful, sustained talk-exchanges." Keenan analyzed the social interactions of twin boys during a twelve-month period beginning when the twins were 2 years and 9 months old; she stated that the twins frequently took note of what had just been said, and responded to one another's utterances.

Sometimes one twin would simply repeat what the other had said, but often their exchanges contained agreement or denials.

The above opposes Piaget's view and suggests, in line with Vygotsky, that from the earliest linguistic development, there are traces of socialized speech and social behavior. As Miller (1963: 156) suggests: "speech in the child serves primarily a social role. Perhaps even the monologues that Piaget called egocentric are in reality the expression of a desire to feel closer to others."

3.2. The development of child's L1 competence

This section is going to illustrate children's linguistic development in L1. It will focus on auditory and phonological, syntactic as well as morphological growth.

3.2.1. Early auditory and phonological development

Children come to the world with the ability both to perceive human sounds and to produce them. As Fonseca Mora (2000: 148) notices, neurophysiological and psychological research suggests that the sound-learning process and its auditory memory start before birth. The fact that sound perception and its analysis are among the earliest processes to develop is signified by Tomatis' research discussed by Hannaford (1995: 36), who states that the fetus' sensory-motor response to phonemes implies that the process of learning a language begins in utero. It has been shown that five-month-old fetuses respond to a particular phoneme by moving the same muscle each time, which hints at the fact that the fetus perceives acoustic signals in the womb.

After birth, infants are capable of perceiving contrasts such as that between /p/ and /b/, as in the following minimal pair *pit* and *bit* (MacWhinney 2005: 257). Garnica's (1973) research reveals that children at the age of 1;10 are able to distinguish almost all phonemic contrasts present in the language to which they are exposed. They have an innate capacity to record and store various sequences of auditory events, as well as the tendency to attune to repeated stimuli that belong to one perceptual class. It has been observed by Berko and Ratner (1993, as cited in MacWhinney 2005: 257–258) that infants usually demonstrate awareness of the sudden change of the perceptual class of the stimulus by preferential look-

ing, e.g. showing increased attention when a long string of syllables that has the form ABA shifts into an ABB structure. The above abilities suggest that a child is attentive to language in the early months of life. Together with improving the capacity to discriminate sounds, children practice their early articulation by producing so-called "cooing" noises, which begin around the age of two or three months. These early vocalizations express various physical states and, as G. Brown (1977: 97) suggests, have a crucial role of initiating the earliest social interaction.

Foster-Cohen (1999: 20) points out that while the first couple of months are characterized by the production of cries and involuntary noises, the second to fourth months see the beginning of voluntarily produced comfort sounds or coos, usually in response to another person. Due to these early vocalizations, children engage in rudimentary turn-taking and show responsiveness to the people around them. Gradually, as the child's variety of vocal noises increases and begins to resemble the adult-like intonation pattern, the child enters the stage of babbling, which "precedes the point at which the child can be said to be using language" (Macaulay 1980: 14). O'Grady (2005: 143) posits that the production of speech-like sounds under the guise of babbling begins at about the same time or a little after the "cooing" stage and is usually fully developed by approximately the age of six months. Most babbling is based on the stringing together of consonants and vowels, first in simple repeated sequences (known as canonical babbling) and later in more varied sequences of sounds (known as variegated babbling) (Foster-Cohen 1999: 22). It has to be borne in mind that there is a resemblance between the types of sounds and sound sequences that appear in babbling and those that characterize the earliest words. Foster-Cohen (1999: 23) notices two main similarities. Firstly, both babbling and early words consist of open syllables. Secondly, canonical babbling and early words involve the repetition of identical syllables, which is known as reduplication. Typical examples are *wawa* for 'water', *baba* for 'bottle' and *mama* for 'mother' (Foster-Cohen 1999: 134). Some of the forms in babbling containing reduplicated syllables, as pointed out by O'Grady (2005: 149), "eventually take on a meaning and become the child's first words."

Vihman (1996: 110–111) observes that babbling increases in frequency and complexity until the age of about twelve months. It paves the way for the production of the first words and eventually dies out. Research indicates that babbling is not a prerequisite for the later development of speech. Ingram (1989: 112) notices that even deaf children babble, although not as much or as fluently as children without any hearing impairments. MacWhinney (2005: 258) claims that well before ninth month, deaf infants lose their interest in

babbling, which indicates that their earlier babbling is sustained mainly through proprioceptive and somaesthetic feedback and serves a useful purpose in enabling them to use speech organs in a coordinated way. He further adds that after the sixth month, babbling is dependent on auditory feedback. Therefore, at this point, the deaf infant ceases to find babbling entertaining since he is not able to produce sounds that would conform to the auditory impressions he would receive. For this reason, babbling is defined by Macaulay (1980: 14) as "a reflex activity that contributes little or nothing to future linguistic development."

The majority of babbled sounds seem to be universal to all children, independent of their native tongue. McLaughlin (1978: 31) observes that "there seems to be considerable uniformity among infants exposed to different languages in the first sounds they produce: the front consonants, *p* or *m*, and the back vowel, *a*, preceding the back consonants, *k* and *g*, and the front vowels, *i* and *u* (…)." The study of fifteen languages conducted by Locke (1983: 9–11) revealed similar tendencies among babbling children. Likewise, Vihman's (1996) research involved native speakers of different languages being unable to tell whether children's babble came from their own or some other language group. However, MacWhinney (2005: 259) maintains that no drift toward the native language occurs until well after the ninth month, and it is by the end of one year that one can observe some traces of the native language, as the infant begins to acquire his/her words. O'Grady (2005: 150), on the other hand, notices that children are influenced by the language they hear around them, which evinces itself in the resemblance of their babbling to the language being acquired, especially in its intonation.

Parallel to the acquisition of phonemes of one's L1, the child must learn the rules for combining sounds into pronounceable sequences (McLaughlin 1978: 31) used in the language of his/her environment. It means that the child not only acquires L1 phonetic rules, but also its phonological structure. Macaulay (1980: 17) maintains that the process of mastering the system of speech sounds may not be fully achieved until the age of seven or eight, but the basic system is usually well established by about four. The most rapid phonetic development takes place in the period between 1;6 and 2;0 and 4;0 and 4;6 years of age (Olpińska 2004: 21). At the age of 2, the child is able to pronounce all the vowels of his native tongue and approximately two thirds of the consonants. It is at the age of 4 that he/she gains control over the majority of sounds of L1.

3.2.2. Syntactic development

As Foster-Cohen (1999: 26) notes, a child's first words emerge before the end of the babble period; that is, around ten or twelve months of age. The way a child's syntactic development proceeds is not haphazard, but systematic and consists of coherent stages. O'Grady (2005: 114) points out that children begin with one-word utterances which they produce for approximately four to eight months and which often express a sentence-like meaning. Gradually, as their language system gains complexity, they express their meaning in two-word phrases until they can build multiword utterances. Each stage has its peculiarities, which will be discussed below.

Macaulay (1980: 18) notices that at the one-word stage, children are concerned with commenting on the presence or absence of people and things, on their disappearance or reappearance. The words being accompanied by gestures and other pre-linguistic signs refer to things in their immediate environment, and, as Foster-Cohen (1999: 42) notices, they also describe actions or states (*down*, *allgone*), and facilitate social interaction (*hi*, *bye*). It has been postulated that these single words, called holophrases (O'Grady 2005: 114, G. Brown 1977: 98), come to express complex ideas which would be expressed in a sentence by an adult. Therefore, they express a sentence-like meaning and should be treated as single-word speech acts (Leopold 1971, as cited in Olpińska 2004: 26). McLaughlin (1978: 39), following Bloom (1973), provides the example of the word 'milk', which may express a variety of semantic relations, e.g. *This is milk*, *I want milk*, *I want more milk*, etc. The meaning of one-word utterances and their communicative intentions is tightly combined with a given communicative situation, on the basis of which it is appropriately deduced by a caretaker. McNeill (1970, as cited in G. Brown 1977: 98–99) observes that a degree of semantic imprecision in holophrastic speech should always be taken for granted. However, "holophrastic speech has a large measure of the capacity of more advanced forms of speech" (G. Brown 1977: 99) and marks the beginning of more complex utterances. At the stage of one-word utterances, children adopt a sensible strategy, namely they seem to single out something that is new or changing, or uncanny about the situation, by using a word that expresses such a state. Patricia Greenfield and her colleagues (Greenfield et al. 1985, as cited in O'Grady 2005: 114), who have examined one-word utterances in great detail, call this the 'informativeness principle', which corresponds to 'the salient feature strategy' defined by Braine (1974, as cited in McLaughlin 1978: 28). In his opinion, children's one-word speech consists of words referring to the one salient feature of the situation. This ob-

servation ties in with a basic fact concerning the human perceptual system, namely that "our attention tends to focus on what is novel, changing, and uncertain in the world around us" (Bates and MacWhinney 1979, as cited in O'Grady 2005: 114). O'Grady (2005: 114) suggests that this should lead us to expect that parents, too, will be guided by this principle when using one-word utterances in speaking to their children. In fact, a study of Hebrew-speaking children and their mothers conducted by Ninio (1992, as cited in O'Grady 2005: 115–116) revealed that 97% of the children's one-word utterances resembled one-word sentences that came from their mothers' speech.

As the child's lexical repertoire increases, two-word phrases begin to emerge. MacWhinney (2005: 261) claims that "the real power of language lies in the process of word combination and the child soon realizes the importance of combining predicates such as *want*, *more*, or *go* with arguments such as *cookie* or *Mommy*." He argues that the ability to associate predicates to arguments is the first step in syntactic development. O'Grady (2005: 82) notices that the majority of children start combining words around the ages of eighteen and twenty-four months, at about the time they have vocabularies of around fifty words or so. The first two-word combinations are not random but usually have a particular structure and, according to R. Brown (1973: 174), can be divided into ten major meanings. These are the following:

- Doer + action
- Action + undergoer
- Doer + undergoer
- Possessor + thing
- Property + thing
- Thing + location
- Action + location
- Naming
- Recurrence
- Nonexistence

Children do not use all of the above combinations at once. Macaulay (1980: 19) notices that the first constructions draw attention to the presence, absence, recurrence of an object or a person. Then constructions appear that involve people as agents, actions, and locatives, which are followed by possession and attribution. It is also worth noticing that children differ from each other in terms of which two-word phrases they use most often (O'Grady

2005: 118). Some children prefer doer + action patterns, others use more action + undergoer one. Possessor + thing patterns are relatively common, while doer + undergoer sentences seem not to be.

At the two-word stage it becomes apparent that the child has an awareness of more complex structures, but is still not able to express them in one multiword utterance. Therefore, initially the child conveys more complex meanings by combining two or more two-word utterances. Their connection is signified by the repetition of the most significant constituent. The child says *Daddy read* followed by *Read book* instead of producing the three-word utterance *Daddy read book* (Macaulay 1980: 20). Children differ as to the duration of this stage. Therefore, their utterances are not measured in terms of years or months, but by the use of mean length of utterance (MLU), (R. Brown 1973: 54).

By the time the child produces utterances of three words or more on a regular basis, language development proceeds at a rapid rate. It is estimated that "up to the three-word stage the child omits all the short, unstressed words, such as articles or auxiliaries and also all grammatical morphemes that indicate plurality, possession, or tense" (Macaulay 1980: 20). For this reason, the child's speech is referred to as a telegraphic one. R. Brown and Fraser (1963, as cited in G. Brown 1977: 103) analyzed the telegraphic speech which children aged two and three years produced when trying to imitate some simple English sentences. Their results showed that nouns and verbs were most frequently retained, with some adjectives and pronouns. Articles, prepositions, copular *be* and auxiliary verbs, as well as inflectional endings were usually omitted. As can be seen, contentive words were kept, whereas functors were usually left out.

Although telegraphic speech is devoid of functors, O'Grady (2005: 93) suggests that it does not mean that children are totally unaware of function words and endings. In their experiment, Gerken and McIntosh (1993, as cited in O'Grady 2005: 93), and Shady and Gerken (1999, as cited in O'Grady 2005: 93) used two types of sentences to ask children aged twenty-one to twenty-eight months to point to a picture. One sentence had a definite article in front of a noun, while the other contained the verb *was* in that position. The results showed that even children who were still not able to produce *the* in their own speech proved to understand better the first type of sentence than the second. Additionally, there is evidence that eleven-month-old infants are surprised when articles are replaced by a nonsense syllable (Schafer et al. 1998, as cited in O'Grady 2005: 93–94) and they know when the articles appear in the wrong order, e.g. "book the" versus "the book" (Shady et al. 1995, as cited in O'Grady 2005: 94). The above suggests that at a very early stage, children have

a grasp of the adult form of speech, and it is in a gradual way that they begin to introduce these omitted words and endings. The order in which they do so has been proven to be consistent and will be discussed in the subsequent section.

It is by no means certain that the child's grammar differs from that of an adult. Certain grammatical constructions have come under careful scrutiny. For example, Klima and Bellugi (1966, as cited in McLaughlin 1978: 34) found that it was possible to distinguish three phases in the child's development of negative sentences. In the first stage, the negative word occurs outside of the sentence nucleus. As O'Grady (2005: 97) notices "since children don't have light verbs in their early speech, they have to let the negative combine directly with words of other types, e.g. *No singing, No cup, No ready.*" The only negative forms at this stage are *no* and *not*. Klima and Bellugi (1966) provide the following examples: *No wipe finger, Wear mitten no, No singing song, Not a teddy bear*. Déprez and Pierce (1993: 34) found among children between the ages of eighteen and thirty months other examples where the negative comes first, e.g. *No the sun shining, No I see truck, No lamb have it, No Leila have a turn*. Gradually this pattern disappears and gives way to more varied negative forms, such as *can't* and *don't.* This marks the beginning of the second stage, where the negative may either occur before the predicate: *He no bite you, I can't catch you*, or it may be outside the sentence nucleus: *No pinch me, Touch the snow no* (Klima and Bellugi 1966). Finally, in the third stage the adult pattern appears: *You don't want some supper, Ask me if I not make mistake, I not hurt him*.

Likewise, as reported by McLaughlin (1978: 35), the developmental course of questions proceeds from the simple to the more complex. Initially, rising intonation serves as the only interrogative device: *No ear?, See hole?, What doing?.* In the second stage, the child makes use of wh-words, e.g. *Where my mittens?*, and it is in the third stage that the auxiliary system emerges and the modal *do* is inflected for tense, e.g. *What did you doed?, Why you caught it?*. Still the child's grammatical system does not fully reflect all the rules typical of the adult grammar.

It would seem that all children begin with a one-word stage in their L1 development, then move to two- and three-word utterances and finally produce multi-word utterances. However, there are children who start with whole strings of run-together words, many of which are sometimes difficult to understand. Peters (1977, 1983) was the first to scrutinize the speech of a child who produced such strings of utterances. She suggested that there appear to be two different styles of language learning. In her opinion, the run-together strings reflect the 'gestalt' approach to language acquisition, whereas the progression from

one-word to multi-word utterances refers to the 'analytic' style. The former style is evident when children pick up large chunks of the language they hear around them and use them, initially without comprehension, to communicate. It happens very often that these strings are poorly articulated and contain a large number of imitated social routines or formulae. In time, they gain flexibility as the child is able to divide as well as expand them. The latter style focuses on analyzing the language into component parts and producing short, clearly articulated, one-word utterances in the early stages, which are gradually transformed into more complex phrases. O'Grady (2005: 11) observes that no child adopts either the analytic or gestalt strategy exclusively. Therefore, it is important to notice that these two styles are used by children, though in different proportions. He advises that we should perceive the analytic-gestalt distinction as a cline.

O'Grady (2005: 113) posits that it is around the age of three that children are able to form their utterances in compliance with the main rules of the adult language. However, as further added by him (O'Grady 2005: 90), they still may omit certain syntactic elements of a sentence. According to B. S. Wood (1976: 134), it is between five and ten years of age that children master the complex syntactic structures of their language, and, as a result, more difficult forms require work well into the school years.

3.2.3. Morphological development

As has already been mentioned, children's early speech is devoid of morphological devices. Such a state lasts until the end of the second year of a child's life. That means that inflectional morphemes appear quite late in children's utterances. Children avoid inflection even if they are to imitate adults' utterances (R. Brown and Bellugi-Klima 1971: 309), which indicates that a child's language is not a random, unsuccessful imitation of adult language, but instead constitutes a system governed by certain principles. O'Grady (2005: 165) presents two facts about language acquisition that confirm that imitation is not the explanation for how children learn to produce sentences. First, children are not able to imitate sentences containing unfamiliar words and structures. They usually repeat what they can already say. Thus, they will imitate the sentence *The dogs are hungry* as *Dog hungry*. Second, children do not even try to imitate sentences very often. All in all, they learn things that are meaningful before those that are meaningless. Furthermore, they also learn those aspects of the language that are simple and regular before those that are more complex and

irregular. In that sense, as Macaulay (1980: 6) notices, two factors appear to govern a child's language learning, namely their inability to imitate phrases with unfamiliar elements and their reluctance to imitate anything devoid of meaning.

The above concern for regularity often leads children to produce erroneous forms at a certain stage of their language development. Even if children learn to use the correct past tense form of irregular verbs before they have learned the rule for forming the past tense of regular verbs, having learned this subsequent rule, they extend it to all verbs without exception. This leads to overregularized forms such as *goed, breaked, comed*. The strategy has been confirmed in studies done by Berko (1971), R. Brown (1973) and Slobin (1971). Therefore, "children do not simply imitate words or phrases they hear but use rules to generate new words and phrases" (McLaughlin 1978: 42). The above tendency to overgeneralize morphological rules prevails in children's speech even until early school years.

A common scenario for the acquisition of an irregular verb (E. V. Clark 1993: 102) reflects what psychologists define as U-shaped learning. Maratsos (2000: 195) presents U-shaped development of the correct past tense for irregular verbs, where the line illustrating a child's success over time starts high because of the initial correct use of a few irregular forms. Then, it falls down to reflect the overuse of the -ed ending, and finally goes up again as children learn the exceptions to the general rule.

The evidence that the child's speech is governed by rules has been confirmed in Berko's (1958) research, who studied the rule-discovery process in the so-called wug test, which was supposed to examine children's ability to extend their knowledge of morphological rules to new instances. The results of the research prove that children have certain morphological rules in their linguistic repertoire, which they are able to apply to the non-existent words made-up for the need of the experiment. For example, since children can pluralize words they have never heard before, they must be aware of the rule that adds the -s morpheme.

R. Brown (1973: 274) investigated the developmental sequence of morpheme acquisition in an attempt to answer the question of whether they appeared in a consistent order or not. While working with three children, he found a striking similarity in the developmental order for endings and function words. A typical developmental sequence of morpheme acquisition looked as follows:

Present progressive
in
on

Plural
Past irregular
Possessive
Uncontractible copula
Articles
Past regular
Third person regular
Third person irregular
Uncontractible auxiliary
Contractible copula
Contractible auxiliary

(adapted from R. Brown 1973: 274)

The above developmental sequence may serve to inform us about factors that facilitate or impede child's language acquisition. O'Grady (2005: 95) suggests that these are regularity, frequency of occurrence, phonetic "visibility," and semantic transparency. The second and the fourth factors refer to E. V. Clark's (1993: 147–149) observations, which reveal that children in their word creation prefer endings that are used on a large scale: a term she calls "productivity." Moreover, she adds that children appear to favor transparency of meaning; that is, they tend to build words whose meaning comes from the meaning of their parts (E. V. Clark 1993: 116). Arabski (1996: 37), on the other hand, assumes that it is not so much a morpheme's frequency of occurrence that determines its acquisition as its cognitive complexity and usability. The morphemes that represent cognitively complex concepts are acquired at later stages.

To sum up, the process of morphological development begins between the second and the third years of life. At that time, children start paying attention to morphological elements in the adults' language and use the first morphemes to mark certain grammatical categories. Between the third and fourth years they begin to use morphological devices on a regular basis and it is between the ages of 6 and 8 that they gain full control over the morphological system of their language.

3.3. Child's L1 discourse development

The early 1970s saw a rapid change in the focus of research on children's language. While the research in the 1960s concentrated on the child's early grammar and began at the 2-word stage, in the 1970s (e.g. Campbell and Wales 1970), we observe a shift in emphasis from grammar to discourse. Researchers of children's language discovered that the descriptive and analytic tools they attempted to use were only partially developed and often un-

tested on real data. Ervin-Tripp and Mitchell-Kernan (1977: 23) notice that "studies of children have routinely been seen as marginal to linguistics, psychology, and the other social sciences." These disciplines viewed the child as an imperfect participant of discourse, pointing to his/her insufficient knowledge and immature capacities. There has been the prevalence of a stereotype of the child as a noncommunicator, with the belief that children are egocentric in their speech and that, unlike adults, they do not engage in dialogue or any form of meaningful communication.

Nowadays we are equipped with research indicating that children can go beyond their egocentrism (Garvey and Hogan 1973; Camaioni 1979; Donaldson 1978), and their communicative abilities should be viewed in terms of the social skills they already possess. Children's discourse has been perceived as the acquisition of sociolinguistic competence and as a process one should analyze within the socio-cultural context. Shugar (1995: 27) posits that the child ought to be considered as a potential co-author/co-creator of discourse. Likewise, Cameron (2001: 42) presents the child as a participant in discourse, one who searches out meaning and coherence in what he/she hears around and in the contributions he/she makes to the communicative process. She adds that children need to participate in discourse as well as to acquire knowledge and skills that are essential for such participation in order to learn discourse skills.

The ability to organize discourse is a necessary component of the process of first language acquisition. However, as Hickmann (1995: 215) observes, with respect to the timing of acquisition, discourse organization seems to be a late development in all languages considered. While striving for mature communicative competence, children learn the pragmatic principles governing the organization of information across utterances and allowing for the construction of cohesive discourse. The development of discourse organization has been studied within two main theoretical paradigms that focus on the two previously discussed aspects of discourse (see section 1.1.): coherence, which parallels the structure of discourse content, and cohesion, which refers to the linguistic devices providing the links that organize this content. As a result of mastering coherence and cohesion, children become able to rely on the linguistic context when talking about entities and events that are not in the immediate speech situation. As A. R. Eisenberg (1985, as cited in Hickmann 1995: 202) puts it, children are able to displace reference from the here-and-now to the there-and-then.

3.3.1. Functions of child language

The major changes that took place in the focus of the 1970s' research are illustrated by Halliday's (1975, as cited in Foster 1990: 111) proposal that language serves three major functions. In that sense, the use of language by children started to be described in functional terms (see section 1.1.). First of all, language enables the speaker to convey information, performing in this way the ideational function. Secondly, it allows them to establish social relationships with other people, fulfilling the interpersonal function. Thirdly, by its textual function, it allows them to convey their ideas through a system that expresses the links between consecutive ideas, as well as between those ideas and the context in which they occur. We will see that preschool children apply each of these functions while using a language. They are capable of controlling the textual devices of turn-taking and various means of marking their speech as cohesive. Shugar (1995: 30) points out that it is the combination of the above mentioned language functions that enables the child to benefit from the whole social linguistic potential.

Similar changes have been observed in Dore's (1975, as cited in Coulthard 1985: 161) research. He believes that it is useless to describe children's utterances from a purely grammatical perspective. The importance of such utterances lies in the functions they perform, and, for this reason, Dore proposes their analysis in terms of speech acts. Following Searle's (1969) model (see section 1.3.), he suggests that even a young child's one-word utterances can be characterized as primitive speech acts, which fall into the following nine categories: labeling, repeating, answering, requesting (action), requesting (answer), calling, greeting, protesting, and practicing. They consist of a rudimentary referring expression and a primitive force, which is usually indicated by intonation.

The above typology has moved a long way from Searle's analysis of speech acts. However, Dore's proposal seems to be appropriate if one views these categories as the ones caretakers apply while interpreting the child's communicative intentions. Coulthard (1985: 163) points out that the most debatable category offered by Dore is that of repeating. Yet, we will see in the subsequent sections of the chapter that a child's repetition performs a significant function in discourse. Four of the remaining acts are of an initiative nature and these are requesting action, requesting answer, calling and greeting. Three are responsive in character – answering, protesting and greeting, and two are non-interactive – labeling and practicing.

Halliday (1975, as cited in Coulthard 1985: 164) also offers a descriptive system of the young child's language and claims that at the early stages of development, a child's communication system is like other animal systems: bi-stratal, in that it consists of semantics and phonology, and has nothing in between. Therefore, the only way to interpret such a system is in functional terms (see section 1.1. and 1.2.2.).

Both Dore and Halliday were interested in categorizing children's utterances functionally. Although the two typologies bear resemblance to each other, in that Halliday's instrumental and regulatory functions correspond to Dore's requesting action, interactional – to calling, greeting and answering; personal – to protesting; heuristic – to requesting an answer and labeling, there is only one of Dore's primitive speech acts that finds no parallel function. And that is the practicing category. It is excluded by Halliday on the grounds that the learning of the system does not constitute its function. While Dore does not offer a parallel speech act for Halliday's imaginative function, he adds a similar category of role play in his later study (Dore 1977), where he proposes a much more detailed system that encompasses thirty-two different illocutionary acts divided into six categories: requests, responses, descriptions, statements, conversational devices and performatives. He based this typology on data obtained from thirty-four- to forty-three-month-old children. The conversational devices category embraces boundary markers, calls and politeness markers, which are important items in interaction but very different in kind from the illocutionary acts in Dore's first four categories, which are ideational in nature, whereas the conversational devices are textual and interpersonal. Performatives category includes warnings, claims, protests, role-plays, jokes and teases.

At this point, the question arises of what kind of knowledge concerning social conventions of speech children need to become sociolinguistically competent. Rice (1984, as cited in Foster 1990: 181–182) discusses three kinds of knowledge and treats them as potential cognitive underpinnings for the sociolinguistic aspects of communicative competence. According to Rice, children must, first of all, possess person knowledge, which pertains to the children's complex knowledge of people including their emotional states and preferences together with the rules of what is appropriate within particular situations. In order to choose socially appropriate linguistic alternatives, children must also possess an understanding of social categories, which involves age, sex, role, status, familiarity and the social relationships between a speaker and a hearer. Finally, children need event knowledge, which includes the knowledge of routines and of what happens under particular cir-

cumstances. Children demonstrate such knowledge from at least 3 years of age and it affects what they say and when.

3.3.2. Child's conversational skills

Children start to participate in conversations early in acquisition. They contribute one-word utterances both while responding to adult prompts and questions and while initiating exchanges with them. Bloom et al. (1996, as cited in E. V. Clark 2003: 307) observe that some two-thirds of adult-child conversations with very young children are initiated by the children. This hints at the fact that children are social from the early development of speech. Keenan (1983: 3), following Escalona (1973), states that even in the first month of life, a child responds to the presence of another person by gazing, smiling and/or vocalizing. These early para/protolinguistic gestures embody the child's need for communication.

Single utterances and even parts of utterances were what early work on children's acquisition of discourse competence focused on, with the aim to examine how the child came to be able to produce and interpret individual speech acts. Initially, as Coulthard (1985) notices, there was little concern with conversational structure and the way a child learns to be a conversationalist. However, the situation has since changed significantly.

The roots of conversation have been traced by Snow (1977, as cited in Coulthard 1985: 173). Examining mothers and their children from the age of 3 months on, she notices that the language used by them is interactional with a great number of questions. Her analysis reveals that mothers attempt to maintain a conversation despite the inadequacies of their conversational partners. Following Snow's work, Ervin-Tripp (1979, as cited in Coulthard 1985: 173) observes that orderly dyadic interchanges occur at an age when adults often consider children to be quite incompetent conversationalists. Hickmann (1995: 202) following Bruner (1983), Keenan (1974, 1977), Keenan and Klein (1975) concludes that "children as young as two years display the ability to sustain conversation, to participate in successful joint referential activities, and to mark links across speaker turns in various ways, e.g. by repetition, juxtaposition, sequencing." The results of the above mentioned studies have been taken as evidence that young children are capable of organizing discourse at some level despite their reliance on adults' scaffolding and claims that they are unable to decentre in communication. By the age of two, children are able to reply to adjacency pairs such as greetings, yes-no questions, confirmation questions, control questions or commands and

offers (Ervin-Tripp 1979). They also begin to recall, report and discuss past events. Sachs (1983, as cited in Hickmann 1995: 203) proves that children under three years begin to displace reference, albeit in a limited way. Their conversations are brief, not always focused, dependent on adult initiation or scaffolding, and lacking the necessary linguistic devices. After about the 29th month of age, children spontaneously initiate less general and longer stretches of speech. However, these stretches are still relatively disorganized.

E. V. Clark (2003: 303) raises the question of the abilities children need to succeed in conversation and formulates four conditions on holding a conversation. Firstly, speaker and addressee must share a joint focus of attention and take account of common ground. Establishing joint attention requires speakers to ensure that the addressee is attending both to the speaker and to whatever the speaker is attentive to. Secondly, speakers must take account of their addressees' background knowledge and attune their utterances accordingly. Thirdly, speakers need to be able to convey their intentions and this demands from their addressees the ability to recognize speech acts they produce. Finally, participants in a conversation must listen to what others say so that their contributions will be relevant and appropriate to the topic under discussion.

Having discussed children's conversational skills, let us focus on specific aspects in this domain, i.e. turn-taking mechanism; breakdowns in conversation; developing cohesion; and meaningful and sustained talk exchanges.

3.3.2.1. The development of turn-taking mechanism

The mechanism of turn-taking provides the framework for the coherent production of conversation. To become fully-fledged participants in conversation, children need to learn to take turns. This requires appropriate contributions at the right moment in the exchange. E. V. Clark (2003: 304) claims that "[e]ach turn should be designed to add new information to what is already given. Effectively, turns allow each participant to add to common ground, to what is now mutually known, and also to ratify whatever someone else just added." When children take turns, they discover some general patterns in conversational exchange – that greetings elicit greetings, thanks elicit disclaimers, and questions elicit answers. They also find out that some of these exchanges are routinized, whereas others usually have a variable content.

At the early stages of development, children need support from their interlocutors in the form of scaffolding (D. Wood et al. 1976). The adult provides the child with a scaffold of information about the relevant event in this way prompting him/her to supply just the piece of information needed at that moment. It should be borne in mind that the contributions of each participants in a conversation rarely have clear boundaries and the adults' scaffolding makes even clearer the accidental (rather than deliberately organized) nature of the turn-taking mechanism. Researchers (Scollon 1976, 1979) suggest that such shared construction of utterances offered by adults' scaffolding enables the child to contribute turns to a conversation even if they know little about the conventional constructions available in their language, and may be conducive to a child's acquisition of linguistic structures.

In order to assess children's skill in conversation, one needs to look at whether they can supply a relevant piece of information when asked or when they add something into an ongoing exchange. According to E. V. Clark (2003: 308), this skill has been studied from several different angles: answering parental questions and getting responses to child-contributions; joining in conversations between other family members; and contributing to conversations between a parent and an older sibling. Another measure of skill in turn-taking is how successful children are in interrupting the current speaker. Children aged two to three often offer relevant intrusions into conversations between parents and older siblings. However, although, as stated by E. V. Clark (2003: 310), an intrusion provides evidence of children's attention, it does not ensure their comprehension. It is estimated that if the intrusion contains information relevant to the current topic, then one infers that the child is both attending to and understanding the ongoing conversation. Therefore, an intrusion may serve two functions: either to interrupt, and then acting as an attention-getting device, or to join the conversation, which signifies attention and understanding.

It has been found that young children face more problems when they seek rather than when they are offered the floor (Ervin-Tripp 1979). However, as they get older, they improve on timing their interruptions. Ervin-Tripp is of the opinion that children do not need any deliberate shaping to learn to take turns in conversation. A child's interest suffices to focus attention on what the speaker is saying. While the turn-taking mechanism is well developed by the time language appears, children generally have longer gaps between their turns than adults do. This has been confirmed by Lieberman and Garvey's (1977) and Jaffe and Feldstein's (1970, as cited in Foster 1990: 112) studies. It is by the fifth or sixth year that children become much more like adults in this respect.

3.3.2.2. Breakdowns in conversation

Children early on become skillful at sustaining communication when it goes awry. The breakdowns in conversations can be repaired by means of clarification requests coming from the other interlocutor as well as by self-repairs. As E. V. Clark (2003: 329) observes, "young children are (…) responsive to requests for clarification which keep interactions running smoothly and repair possible disruptions (…)." They take the form of a simple clarification marker (e.g. *huh?, hm? what?*), repetition of the whole or part of the child's utterance with question intonation added, or repetition with a modification that expands what the child has said.

When it comes to repairs, R. Clark (1978, as cited in Foster 1990: 124) suggests that children begin to make self-repairs around 1;6 –2;0. The earliest constitute successive attempts at the pronunciation of single words (Scollon 1979), whereas further ones, around 3 years of age, focus on a number of different linguistic features, including syntax, pronunciation and lexicon (Iwamura 1980). The findings coming from E. V. Clark and Andersen's (1979) study show that children's earliest self-repairs were mostly phonological, with the occurrence of syntactic and lexical ones later on. In their recorded data, children produced approximately 20 self-repairs per hour, which may hint at the fact that they used self-repairs for communicative reasons. E. V. Clark (1982) found that when children make repairs to their own words, they usually manage to produce a version that is closer to the adult target than their original attempt. Such repairs are triggered by adult signs of non-comprehension or active miscomprehension, as conveyed by the adult's misidentification of the intended target (Scollon 1976).

3.3.2.3. Developing cohesion

The ability to displace reference by children runs in parallel with an increase in coherence and cohesion (see section 3.3.). With regard to coherence, young children fail to produce particular units, i.e. settings (A. R. Eisenberg 1985, as cited in Hickmann 1995: 203), which are significant for the introduction of initial parameters in narratives. With respect to cohesion, the ability to construct coherent conversations by using intersentential links has been reported to emerge at two to three years of age. At first children's utterances contain few ties, the most common one being lexical cohesion, while pronouns and connectives are also

frequent and increase with age. The main source of information about the origins of conversation between children comes from Keenan's (1983) study on the exchanges between her twin sons, recorded on a monthly basis from the age of two years and nine months to three years and eight months.

Previous research (e.g. Piaget 1966, Halliday 1975) indicated that children had no concept of exchanging information and therefore could not indulge in dialogue. This suggested that the skill of holding a conversation is acquired late. However, the evidence from Keenan's work suggests something opposite. The findings show that twins routinely use repetition in their exchanges, and, due to the use of this device, they are beginning to exploit an important cohesive device (Keenan 1973; Keenan and Klein 1975). Keenan (1973) finds that by 3;0 simple exact repetition gives way to modifications of the original utterance. Similar observations have been made by Bloom et al. (1976), who has found that the earliest cohesion is achieved by simple repetitions of all or part of the adult utterance. Gradually the children studied by Bloom and his colleagues began to expand on the adult utterance, usually preserving the verb.

Foster (1990: 114) points out that answers to questions may also function as cohesive devices despite the fact that they usually repeat some part of the question. Also, as observed by McTear (1985), the repetition of the adult's question before answering it may serve as a link between the adult and child utterances. L. E. Bernstein (1981) has found that many responses to questions and comments are elliptical, which means that they assume much of the questioner's utterance. These kinds of elliptical forms function as cohesive devices and emerge early in development. Another kind of cohesive device involves the use of specific connecting words such as: *well*, *sure*, *see*, *now*, and *right*, which appear around 3;0 (McTear 1985). The above mentioned linguistic devices enable the child to mark the connections between utterances.

3.3.2.4. Meaningful and sustained talk exchanges

At this point we should consider the purpose of studying the ethnography of communication with children. Ervin-Tripp and Mitchell-Kernan (1977) state that one reason is to put a new perspective on the development of the child's linguistic apparatus. They believe that the child's language faculty is engaged only when the child needs to communicate. To contradict researchers' (Piaget 1966) conviction about children's egocentrism, Keenan (1983)

puts forward the hypothesis that young children do engage in meaningful, sustained talk exchanges. She argues that the children she studied consistently adhered to Grice's (1975: 46) maxim to "be relevant" (see section 1.3.). While they were sometimes relevant by addressing the topic in the subsequent turn, another way to be relevant was to repeat or modify a phonological or syntactic form of the previous utterance. On the basis of the recorded data of twin boys, Keenan finds categories of the utterances that are largely more sociocentric rather than egocentric in nature. These are the following: comments, repetitions, questions, mands, narratives, songs and rhymes, and sound play. We will discuss them in detail, except for songs and rhymes, which seem to be irrelevant to the present dissertation.

Comments, according to Bloom (1970), describe some ongoing activity or some activity about to be performed in the immediate future. Comments also name or point out copresent objects or describe the state or condition of objects and persons. Keenan (1983) emphasizes the fact that comments receive acknowledgements. The reported twins obey a conversational norm which expects the addressee to acknowledge the speaker's utterance. Keenan and Klein (1975) distinguish five types of acknowledgement of relevant response: basic acknowledgement (direct repetition), affirmation (explicit agreement), denial (negation of opposition), matching (claim to be performing a similar action), and extension (new predication to previous speaker's topic). From a grammatical perspective, acknowledgements are expressed by any one or a combination of the following forms (Keenan 1983: 7–8): positive particle, negative particle, expletive, indicatives. Indicatives are differentiated between those that carry no new information and in that case take the form of either exact repetitions or partial repetitions of comment; and those that carry new information and take the form of extended repetitions, negative repetitions and other extensions (predicates that do not repeat the comment). It has been observed that the listener is expected to produce one of these acknowledgements. In case he/she does not, the speaker may repeat his/her assertion until it is acknowledged. Comments, then, do not fit into the notion of egocentric speech proposed by Piaget (1966).

In the related literature one may find the observation that children often repeat utterances addressed to them, which they do spontaneously and which may vary in the degree to which they do so. We have, on the one end of a cline, those researchers who consider this vehicle as essential for obtaining linguistic knowledge (e.g. Clark and Wong 2002), and on the other – those who ascribe no importance whatsoever to the repetitions of children (Bloom et al. 1974, as cited in Lust 2006: 120).

The 1960s' and the beginning of the 1970s' literature is dominated by studies which attempt to show that language does not develop through repetition. If repetition plays no role in language development, then why do children repeat the utterances they hear with such frequency? Keenan (1977) claims that researchers have focused on the form of repeated utterances and neglected their functional aspect in real communicative situations. Therefore, she analyzes repetitions occurring in children's language from a pragmatic perspective. Behaviorists claimed that young children repeat utterances as an attempt to produce the same utterance themselves and to imitate the adult form. Repetition became strongly associated with imitation. It started to be viewed as a formal relation between two utterances rather than as a social act. As Lust (2006: 120) notices, "[i]mitation of language appears not to be a direct passive rote copy of the input, but requires analysis and reconstruction of the input." Therefore, Keenan's work is in part a criticism of the older studies on imitation, which were designed to discover the maximal grammatical competence of children and to answer the question whether imitation supported grammatical development. And yet, the complexity of repetitions is likely to depend on their discourse function or intent.

McTear (1978: 295) attempts to distinguish between imitation and repetition: "[i]n imitation, the observer perceives a preceding utterance as a model, intends to copy it and manifests the novel behavior in the process;" repetitions "serve as communicative speech acts." Furthermore, their nature changes as children acquire more rules of conversational interaction. We know that children who repeat utterances increase this activity until about 2;6, and then it begins to decline (Keenan 1977). It may happen that the child first uses repetition to imitate and then makes use of it to perform other communicative tasks. The more competent in the number of speech acts the child becomes, the less satisfactory repetition is for him/her as a device.

The obvious place to repeat an utterance would be in the turn just after it was introduced by the adult. Rodd and Braine (1971, as cited in Keenan 1977: 127) consider immediate responses to an utterance as possible repetitions. Yet, studies of repetition assume an expression is imitated as long as it occurs within five to ten turns of the adult's introduction (Bloom et al. 1974, as cited in Keenan 1977: 127). They find, however, that children prefer immediate imitation. Probably the reason why repetition is used much more often in child discourse than in adult discourse is that it requires the minimum operation on the partner's speech.

Repetition can have multiple functions, and each of them may play a different role in acquisition. First of all, it helps the speaker and the addressee establish common ground and enables the current speaker to ratify what the previous speaker proposed. According to E. V. Clark (2003: 321), repetitions serve at least two functions for children. First, they connote acceptance or ratification of the adult term – a function also distinguished by McTear (1978: 295). As a result, they have the fundamental property of acknowledgement. In Keenan and Klein's (1975) study of early-morning conversations between twin boys, 59% of the responses to assertions were repetitions. By the time children reached the age of three, this number had dropped and the twins began to rely on more complex forms of acknowledgement. Second, repetitions provide children with the opportunity to try to produce the target term in a recognizable fashion and to practice the unfamiliar term. However, the frequency with which children choose to ratify new terms this way may vary and depends on the child's lexical repertoire as well as on his/her skills for the structuring of turns and the contents of turns in conversation. From the discourse point of view, one may expect repetitions to be more frequent after adults' questions than after other types of adult utterances. Réger (1986, as cited in E. V. Clark 2003: 321) analyzed the discourse functions of repeats in longitudinal data collected from two children acquiring Hungarian. Initially, both children were equally likely to repeat part of the adult's utterance regardless of their types. As they got older, they shifted to using repeats twice as often after questions compared to nonquestions. These repeats were treated as responses that ratified information in questions. Moreover, repetition serves to establish discourse topics (McTear 1978). Where topical continuity is at stake, what is repeated by the second speaker becomes given information and is further available for subsequent comment by the first speaker.

To sum up, repetition is one of the most contentious issues in linguistics, as it is associated with the language of children who are underrated as communicators. Yet, it can have many roles in conversation and signifies that children are sensitive to the illocutionary force of prior utterances in discourse. Apart from acknowledging and ratifying the previous speaker's utterance, repetition may signal the addition of some information to common ground and the uptake of a new term just offered. All in all, it often helps to create semantically coherent dialogues, indicating that both the child and adult are keeping track of common ground in the exchange. Keenan (1977) raises the question whether repetition is developmentally progressive with respect to language, whether the child learns anything about his/her language while repeating the utterance of his/her interlocutor, and whether there are any particular adult interactional strategies or situational factors which affect child-

generated repetitions. We may state that due to the use of repetitions, the child is striving for communication. He/she does not construct sentences at random, but frames them to fulfill particular communicative needs.

Questions constitute another category of utterances which enable the child to sustain communication. Keenan (1983), following Bloom (1970), defines them as utterances used by the child to seek information or confirmation. What distinguishes questions from comments is that comments are expressed by utterances in the indicative mood, whereas questions are expressed by utterances in the interrogative mood. Mands, as defined by Keenan (1983: 10), constitute the category of interpersonal directive in which the primary intention of the speaker is to direct the hearer to carry out some course of action. The expressed utterances tend to be in the speaker's rather than in the hearer's interest. Narratives, as further explained by her, are closely related to comments in that they tend to be formed from indicative utterances. They differ in that they describe a sequence of 2 or more events which the child imagines to take place. Finally, sound play is characteristic of containing particular lexical items that are repeated over and over again.

Following Keenan (1983: 14), we can divide the above set of categories into two groups. In the first group are comments, questions, and mands. All categories of talk in this group impose some form of obligation on the co-present hearer. This obligation consists of the hearer acknowledging that the speaker has addressed some utterance to the hearer. Sound play and narratives fall into the second group and none of them obligates the co-present hearer to respond.

Keenan further suggests that the majority of the twins' conversations can be accounted for in terms of two major functions: the 'focus' function, which takes an initial conversational turn, chooses a constituent of it, and repeats it in a subsequent turn (the constituent focused on may be a whole utterance within a turn), and the 'substitution' function, which takes an utterance within a conversational turn and replaces a constituent within it with a constituent of the same grammatical category. The bulk of the utterances between the twins' conversational turns are linked formally through these functions, which allows for the achievement of semantically coherent dialogues. If the utterance has no formal relation to previous discourse, it is defined by Keenan as 'response constant' and usually serves to acknowledge the other speaker's utterance. Keenan (1983: 42) observes that although both functions appear in the earliest discourse examined, the substitution is utilized far less frequently. It indicates that substitution operations are more complex than focus operations, since in the former the child not only repeats, but also attends to the constraints of a par-

ticular environment within an antecedent utterance and searches for items that fit that environment. Over time, one may observe an increase in the use of substitution operations, even in contexts where focus operations previously predominated. This change, as observed by Keenan (1983: 45–46), seems to be critical to the transition away from highly repetitious discourse and is instrumental in developing discourse that is not limited to the here-and-now.

3.4. The development of child's L2 competence

Having discussed the development of child's L1 competence, it is now that we are in good stead for presenting the L2 development. Child second language acquisition, as pointed out by Foster-Cohen (1999: 7–8), refers to "acquisition by individuals young enough to be within the critical period, but yet with a first language already learned," or, as added by McLaughlin (1978: 99), "successive acquisition of two languages in childhood." These statements imply that second language is acquired after the first one is already established. Arabski (1996: 34), on the other hand, makes a distinction between two types of second language acquisition by children: in one, a second language is simultaneously acquired with the first language and in the other, a second language is acquired once the system of first language is more or less ingrained; that is, after three years of age. Since children's second language acquisition raises a great deal of debate among researchers, let us devote this section to the potential analogy between first and second language acquisition as well as to the comparison between developmental sequences found in L1 and L2. Further, we will analyze the phenomenon of interference between first and second language and finally proceed to the presentation of children's L2 discourse.

3.4.1. The analogy of L2 development to L1 language acquisition

The possible relation between first and second language acquisition has long drawn the attention of second language researchers. Bialystok (1994: 120) posits that "second language acquisition is both the same as and different from first language acquisition." She

believes that the paradigms for first language acquisition can be neither applied directly into accounts of second language acquisition, nor can they be ignored.

Politzer (1974) notes that the tendency to perceive second language acquisition as similar to first language acquisition depends on the conceptual perspective one maintains towards language acquisition in general. The cognitive perspective shows that the child, in acquiring a second language, has a broader conceptual world than the child learning his first language. Therefore, there is no evidence that the sequence of cognitive operations taking place in first language acquisition is repeated in second language development. If, on the other hand, one views language acquisition in terms of the processes involved and the strategies applied, the similarities between first and second language acquisition become more conspicuous. Politzer also points out that many of the mistakes made by second-language learners are similar or even identical to the mistakes made by children in the process of first language acquisition. He draws attention to the evidence that complex structures being difficult in first language acquisition tend to be also demanding in second language development. In spite of that, he maintains that the similarity between first and second language acquisition should not be taken for granted.

However, Ervin-Tripp's (1974) research with children acquiring a second language shows that the process of second language acquisition strongly resembles the process of first language acquisition. Her analysis indicates that early sentences in a second language are similar in their form, function, semantic redundancy and reliance on short-term memory storage to those produced in a first language. She adds that although the child has mastered complex strategies in the first language, e.g. for negative and interrogative constructions, he/she prefers simple word-order strategies in the production of L2 utterances. Moreover, overgeneralization of lexical and morphological forms occurs both in first language and second language acquisition.

In each case, there are two possible means through which the processes can operate and serve to develop respective aspects of linguistic competence. Bialystok (1994: 135) notices that "[o]n the one hand, the process may be predominantly under the control of biological wiring. On the other hand, the process may be predominantly at the mercy of the cognitive intervention of the learner, and active involvement in the learning process could accelerate or modify the course of development." Children benefit from being biologically predisposed to acquire certain aspects of language, e.g. phonology, whereas adults learning a second language enjoy the ability of cognitive mediation. For children, the greatest need for cognitive intervention is in the development of semantics, and some cognitive reorgani-

zation is essential to comprehend the syntactic system. Bialystok concludes that first and second language learning are the same processes, but have different expressions in development, and it is the balance between the biological and cognitive influences on acquisition that distinguishes between first and second language learning.

3.4.2. The L2 acquisition order

This section will deal with two questions, i.e. whether there is an acquisition order for certain English structures which is typical of L2 learners, and whether this order is the same or different from that found in L1 acquisition. The L2 acquisition order research began in the mid-1970s, and almost every study that attempted to scrutinize this issue answered the former question in the affirmative. Researchers have found a common order of L2 acquisition for both children and adults which is similar for both speaking and writing, provided that the data analyzed are elicited through natural conversations or compositions. They also reached a consensus that second language learning proceeds by the acquisition of groups of structures rather than one structure at a time.

Most of the L2 sequence studies have investigated grammatical morphemes, i.e. noun and verb inflections, articles, auxiliaries, copulas and prepositions. Therefore, they are known as morpheme order studies, and, as Gass and Selinker (2008: 126) note, they became highly influential in the development of the field of second language acquisition. They were organized as a reaction to earlier work that promoted a transfer, hence a behaviorist approach to the study of how second languages are learned. Tackling the issue from a mentalist perspective, Dulay and Burt (1974a: 37) proposed the theory of what they called creative construction, which is:

> the process in which children gradually reconstruct rules for speech they hear, guided by universal innate mechanisms which cause them to formulate certain types of hypotheses about the language system being acquired, until the mismatch between what they are exposed to and what they produce is resolved.

Dulay and Burt further claim that second language learners embark on the same path as young children learning their first language. Whatever happens in learning a first language is repeated when someone acquires a second language. As McLaughlin (1978: 124) notices, "the construction of linguistic rules is said to be creative, because no speaker of the target

language models the kind of sentences regularly produced by children who are still acquiring the language." Thus, as Gass and Selinker (2008: 127) claim, creative construction theory implies that there are L2 strategies that are common to all children regardless of their first language backgrounds. In other words, it is assumed that children reconstruct second language rules in similar ways, independently of their native languages. Therefore, the processes involved in acquisition are assumed to be the same. As such, the research within the paradigm of the creative construction tradition attempted to substantiate the above assumptions. In order to empirically verify them, morpheme order studies emerged.

The first soundly designed study that investigated acquisition order for L2 learners was a pilot study conducted by Dulay and Burt (1973). It analyzed eight English grammatical morphemes in the speech of three groups of six-to-eight-year-old Spanish-speaking children. The researchers began with R. Brown's (1973) finding that there is a common, invariant sequence of acquisition for at least 14 morphemes in L1 acquisition (see section 3.2.3.). There were two research questions that they raised, namely whether children who acquire English as L2 acquire these morphemes in the same sequence and whether this sequence is the same as that found in children acquiring English as L1. Although the groups differed in their amount of exposure to English, the acquisition sequences obtained from them were markedly similar. However, the order of acquisition of the functors for the three experimental L2 language groups was obviously different from that of the native English-speaking children.

To verify their results, Dulay and Burt (1974a) undertook a second study where they compared Chinese- and Spanish-speaking children's acquisition sequences for eleven English grammatical morphemes, this time adding three to the eight from the first study. They attempted to determine whether the order of acquisition of functors was the same among children with different language backgrounds. Examination of small corpora of children's speech revealed that the sequence of acquisition of the 11 functors was virtually the same for both groups. Although the grammar of morphemes differed significantly in the two languages studied, they were acquired in the same sequence in L2. Makino's (1979, as cited in Dulay et al. 1982: 207) study of Japanese adolescents learning English as L2 showed a learning order similar to the one found by Dulay and Burt (1974b).

The above studies confirm that there is a universal order in which L2 learners acquire certain syntactic and morphological structures. The finding has been replicated in other studies, e.g. Fathman (1975); Kessler and Idar (1977), which used various research methods and elicitation techniques, and examined children from four language backgrounds

(Korean, Spanish, Vietnamese and Japanese). Therefore, it is highly probable that children learning English as L2 acquire grammatical structures in a similar order, regardless of their first-language backgrounds. Gass and Selinker (2008: 129) conclude that there is justification for attributing the similarity to universal developmental factors and to diminish the significance of the role of the native language.

Our next question refers to the issue of whether the acquisition order for certain L2 structures is different from the one found for first language learners, or whether the two acquisition sequences are the same. We find that there are some similarities as well as differences. Dulay and Burt (1974b) compared the order in which their L2 subjects and Brown's first language learners acquired the nine English grammatical morphemes. They found differences in the following areas of acquisition: the irregular past tense, the article, the copula and the auxiliary. Except for the irregular past tense, the aforementioned morphemes are acquired earlier in L2 than in L1. Hakuta (1974, as cited in McLaughlin 1978: 110) also found evidence of the difference in L1 and L2 acquisition orders. He/she analyzed the development of grammatical morphemes in the speech of a 5-year-old Japanese girl acquiring English as a second language. The results show that the order of acquisition did not invariably parallel that of children acquiring English as a first language.

However, other studies have yielded abundant evidence that children acquiring a second language go through the same developmental stages as children acquiring a first language. Milon (1974) compared the developmental substages of negation in a 7-year-old Japanese boy's acquisition of English with those developmental stages observed by Klima and Bellugi (1966) in the acquisition of negation by monolingual English-speaking children (see section 3.2.2.). Milon came to the conclusion that the child progressed through the same developmental stages in the same sequence as the children from the previous study. Although the negative in Japanese is formed by attaching a morpheme to the right of the verb stem, the child did not transfer the Japanese structure onto the English. Instead, the child seemed to be following the developmental sequence (at least the first two stages) observed in monolingual English-speaking children. Another study whose findings support the hypothesis that second-language acquisition follows the developmental path of first language acquisition of English has been conducted by Kessler and Idar (1977). They studied the acquisition of grammatical morphemes by a 4-year-old Vietnamese child during a 9-week period of living in the natural environment of the L2. The use of four verb phrase morphemes in obligatory contexts revealed an acquisition order that was identical to that found by R. Brown (1973) for children learning English as a first language. It should also

be pointed out that the contrastive analysis of Vietnamese and English predicts a different developmental sequence for the two languages. Therefore, the studies by Milon (1974) and Kessler and Idar (1977) prove that it is the second-language system, rather than the child's first language, that guides the acquisition process.

Additional support for the notion that second-language learners go through the stages observed in monolingual learners of the target language comes from a number of cross-sectional studies. Natalicio and Natalicio (1971) studied the acquisition of English plurals by native Spanish-speaking children. Apart from the experimental group, their sample included a control group of native English-speaking children. Both groups were tested by a procedure similar to the one used by Berko (1958) to examine children's knowledge of morphological rules (see section 3.2.3.). Both the experimental and the control group acquired the /-s/ and /-z/ plural allomorphs before the /-iz/. The findings indicate that Spanish first-language structures are not transferred to the second language, since transfer from Spanish to English would predict that /-s/ be acquired first with /-z/ and /-iz/ acquired simultaneously. Other support comes from the study by Price (1968), where the production of Welsh noun phrases, adjective-noun and possessive-noun phrase constructions by English-speaking children reflected Welsh rather than English word order. The results show that the children did not follow their first language word order. Dulay and Burt (1974c, as cited in McLaughlin 1978: 123) came to a similar conclusion while analyzing English speech samples of Spanish-, Chinese-, Japanese-, and Norwegian-speaking children acquiring English as a second language. The children did not apply the structures of their first language to English. Instead, they progressed through a developmental sequence that was similar to that characteristic of children acquiring English as a first language. Similar findings were obtained by Arabski (1985: 104–105), who observed the same stages in the development of questions and negation as those identified by Klima and Bellugi (1966) (see section 3.2.2.), in the language produced by his 5-year-old daughter acquiring English as a second language in a natural context.

The work of Milon (1974), Kessler and Idar (1977), Natalicio and Natalicio (1971) and Dulay and Burt (1974c) suggests that the developmental stages in L2 acquisition are much the same as those that monolingual children go through in acquiring the target language. Therefore, it is highly probable that second language learners recapitulate the process in the acquisition of the second language. However, we are left with inconsistencies between the findings of the above mentioned researchers and those of Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974b) and Hakuta (1974), who found that the acquisition sequence is different for

first- and second-language learners. The order in which English morphemes are acquired by children with different first languages correlates relatively weakly with that found in monolingual English-speaking children. The most interesting aspect of this research is that first-language structures have a minimal effect on the course of second-language development. That is, the children studied did not resort to the strategies of their first languages but rather used common strategies in approaching the second language, regardless of their language background.

3.4.3. Interference between L1 and L2

Interference between L1 and L2 is an inevitable and ubiquitous part of second language acquisition. However, the case-study literature indicates that under certain circumstances, interference between languages rarely occurs among children who acquire a second language after a first language has been established. McLaughlin (1978: 122) observes that children who acquire a second language in a social environment supportive of that language generally show few signs of first language interference. Huntsberry (1972) concludes, on the basis of parental reports, that children who show the greatest interference from their first language in acquiring the second language are those who are either very young or who are deprived of contact with children and adults speaking that language. It means that when the child has family and peers to communicate with in the second language, interference is minimized. On the other hand, when the second language is not the language of the child's larger social environment, interference between languages tends to increase (Ervin-Tripp 1974). Another condition under which little interference is found is, as suggested by McLaughlin (1978: 202), "in the simultaneous acquisition of two languages, where the input conditions are such as to allow the child to keep the two languages separate, (…)." He further adds that it is the situational specificity that constitutes an important factor in minimizing interference between languages. Arabski (1996: 35) maintains that the child associates a given language with a specific person or context. If there is a lack of such a connection, then the two linguistic codes interfere.

There are several interesting hypotheses that McLaughlin (1978: 117) considers, one known as the regression hypothesis; according to which, the child uses the language skills used in first language acquisition with L2 data but "at a very primitive and rudimentary level." Another hypothesis, the recapitulation hypothesis, assumes that the child recapi-

tulates the learning process of a native speaker of the target language. What could be considered counterevidence to the second hypothesis is the fact that, as stated by McLaughlin (1978: 117), "children occasionally use first-language structures to solve the riddle of second-language structures." In other words, as Gass and Selinker (2008: 124) put it, in child second-language acquisition, a child is more likely to use first-language structures when faced with difficult second-language structures.

However, the attempt to identify sources of errors in the second-language learners' speech shows that few of the errors can be attributed to interference from their first language. In fact, no more than a third of the errors in a speech corpus can be identified as due to the reliance on first-language structures (McLaughlin 1978: 203). The majority of the errors that second-language learners make result from overgeneralization and misapplication of the second language rules, oversimplification of morphology and syntax that parallels the way monolingual speakers oversimplify, and from other developmental errors found in the corpus of first language learners of the target language. Particularly interesting findings in this field come from a study of Dulay and Burt (1974c), where they analyze the errors in the English speech samples of Spanish-, Chinese-, Japanese- and Norwegian-speaking children. Their analysis reveals that the types of mistakes made by the children were strikingly similar. McLaughlin (1978: 203) posits that "if first language structures were the major source of a second-language learners' errors, one would expect that children with such structurally dissimilar first languages would make very dissimilar mistakes in their English." This suggests that the child is guided more by input than by previous learning experience (Wagner-Gough and Hatch 1975) and that the interaction between structurally different languages plays a minor role in second language acquisition.

Dulay and Burt (1974c, as cited in McLaughlin 1978: 124) maintain that the similarity of errors and the specific error types reflect the assumptions of creative construction (see section 3.4.2.), which results in the development of interlanguage (J. C. Richards 1972, Selinker 1972, as cited in McLaughlin 1978: 124) – a separate linguistic system that results from the learner's attempted production of the target language norms. Selinker argued that most adults face many obstacles when they master a second language to the point that they rarely become indistinguishable from native speakers of the target language. Children, on the other hand, stand a chance of going beyond interlanguage and achieve a native-like command of a second language provided that the two languages are acquired simultaneously or the child has environmental support for successive acquisition through family and peers. However, if the child does not acquire a second language simultaneously to the first

one, and if it occurs in the absence of peers who are native speakers of the target language, interlanguage is likely to result (Selinker et al. 1975). This is compatible with the aforementioned observation that interference tends to increase when the second language does not constitute the learner's larger social environment and is also supported by Naiman's (1974) research that fossilized, non-developmental errors can be found in the speech of school children who learn a language in the absence of native-speaking peers.

As can be seen, second-language acquisition is a complex process. Yet, its comprehension is essential in analyzing a closely related concept, i.e. second-language discourse. Hatch (1978a: 433) points to the importance of this area by claiming that it is only through discourse analysis that we can answer the many questions we have about second language acquisition. The phenomenon of children's second language discourse will be the subject of our discussion in the next section.

3.5. Research on the child's L2 discourse

Nowadays, we know a lot more about how a child learns to become a conversationalist. However, much of the work reviewed so far deals with first language discourse and, as emphasized by Coulthard (1985: 177), as we gain insight into children's acquisition of conversational competence in their first language, we are in good stead for asking how far the process is the same in second language learning. The current section discusses the findings of the research on children's L2 discourse and is divided into two broad parts dependent on the context of its occurrence, i.e. natural setting and immersion, or second/foreign language classroom. First, it presents the phenomenon of language play prevailing in both contexts as well as its impact on the nature of the resulting discourse and on child's L2 development. It also illustrates collaborative aspects of language play manifested in the classroom. Secondly, we will attempt to draw comparison between child L2 learner-child native speaker, and child L2 learner-adult native speaker discourse, and show discourse strategies used by both interlocutors in the interaction. Further, the research is going to reveal whether it is the adult or child native speaker interlocutor that offers a more reliable source of input for child L2 learner. Thirdly, it will explore the issue of interactional feedback and its bearing on both learners' output and L2 development, as well as the relationship between feedback and interactional context. Finally, we will investigate what kind of discourse strategies young

learners use to enter classroom interaction and how their interactional competence develops in an L2 instructional setting.

3.5.1. Child's L2 discourse in natural setting

The potential of language play is discussed by Peck (1980), whose analysis of the interaction between a child L2 learner and his native English-speaking friend focuses on the psychological issues it entails, as well as the potential benefits it brings to language learning. In her opinion (Peck 1980: 160), language play may be favorable to the child's acquisition of a second language in terms of the kinds of practice opportunities it offers, the intense affective climate it evokes and because of children's attention paid to language form. She adds that playfulness can be characterized by three conditions: "players are nonliterally oriented, the play is intrinsically motivating, and it is rule-bound" (Peck 1980: 154). In language play, language is used nonreferentially, i.e. the expression of meaning is not the children's primary concern. Moreover, children engage in language play for its own sake, either cooperatively or competitively, and abide by both linguistic and social rules. The former are noticeable in suprasegmental, lexical and syntactic variations that children make on each other's utterances, the latter are evident in the sense that child's discourse is governed by one of the maxims identified by Grice (1975), i.e. be relevant (see section 1.3.).

In another of her articles, Peck (1978: 384) analyzes the language of the child second-language learner as he and his partners endeavor to be "cooperative conversationalists" – a term which signifies that they try to use language appropriate for their conversational interaction. Her focus is on discourse patterns which emerge in cooperative conversations between an 8-year-old acquirer of English (a native speaker of Spanish) and a child native speaker of English. By comparing this type of discourse with the discourse which occurs between the same child L2 learner and an adult (native speaker of English), she is able to explore two research questions relating to discourse analysis in second language acquisition. The first is whether child-child discourse is different from child-adult discourse, especially how it is established on functions (Keenan 1983), incorporation (Wagner-Gough and Hatch 1975) and vertical constructions (Scollon 1974). The second question refers to what the child is learning about English syntax, phonology, and semantics in his discourse with the other child and with the adult. Since discourse and not the learning out-

comes constitutes the primary concern of the present dissertation, let us report on the findings that provide the answer for the first question. Peck finds out that the child-child discourse sample bears a striking resemblance to discourse patterns occurring between the 2–3-year-old children studied by Keenan (1983). Many parallels have been found in terms of focus and substitution functions, sound play (repeating and modifying nonsense sounds), the use of songs and nursery rhymes (see section 3.3.2.4.). However, there are few instances of functions in the child-adult discourse sample. Peck (1978: 390) notices that the adult-child discourse differs from the child-child discourse in several ways, i.e. "the number and types of questions, the number of requests for clarification, the ease of topic nomination, and the boundaries and prevalence of social speech." In the child-child discourse, there are fewer questions than in the child-adult discourse with a predominance of rhetorical questions over information questions. The investigation of the requests for clarification provides further evidence as to the essentially informational, semantic character of the child-adult discourse as opposed to the ludic character of the child-child discourse, and reveals that the adult asked for clarification much more frequently than the child interlocutor. As far as topic nomination is concerned, the child second-language learner was more successful in this respect with the adult than with the child, which is explained by the fact that the adult encouraged the child to express his ideas and consequently nominate his own topics. However, the adult never responded to the child's topic of language play and used language solely in a literal and referential way. Although the topics nominated by the child second-language learner were often ignored by the native-speaking child, there was less unsocial speech between the two children than there was in the child-adult discourse. This can be elucidated by a wider definition in child-child discourse of what is social. Peck (1978: 393) explains that "[t]he two children responded to each other by word and sound play, or according to the meaning. Any utterance was potentially social, i.e. material for the free associatory play of the other child." In the adult-child discourse, on the other hand, social speech is constituted by any utterances which express an appropriate meaning. Peck (1978: 399–400) concludes that it is impossible to assume that all child-child discourse is characterized by the features discussed in the study. Yet, it is unquestionable that the kind of teasing and language play occurs between children and not in adult-adult or child-adult discourse to such an extent. As a final remark, Peck emphasizes the importance of the analysis of child-child discourse, particularly language play, for a deeper understanding of second language acquisition.

The fact that adult interlocutors may be more reliable than age-peers as sources of input for young learners is suggested by Cathcart-Strong's (1986) study. The author notes that little is known about how child second-language learners encourage their native-speaker interlocutors to provide them with useful input for second-language learning (Cathcart-Strong 1986: 515). The purpose of the study is to determine the effectiveness of various types of communicative acts used by four Spanish-speaking kindergarten students to elicit native-speaker input from English-speaking classmates or an adult observer. It also examines the nature of the input generated by these utterances and the relevance of this behavior for the classroom teacher. Six communicative acts performed by the children in three play situations were investigated; these are the following: call attention, request action, request information, label object, label action, and express intent. Results show that while the response rate to some types of utterances was predictable (e.g. to requests for information), others (e.g. calls for attention and requests for action) did not generate the expected feedback. In addition, there was an unexpectedly high response rate to other communicative acts, such as statements of intention. Cathcart-Strong (1986: 523) explains why the intention statement is an unexpected source of input by claiming that, despite its apparently non-interactive nature, its social role in setting up pretend play and other interesting play scenarios made it equal to or even supersede other types of utterances as input generators. She further suggests two discourse, or input-generating, maxims that may operate in child-child discourse and claims that they supersede rather than contradict those previously established for adult discourse (Grice 1975, see section 1.3.). These are the following:

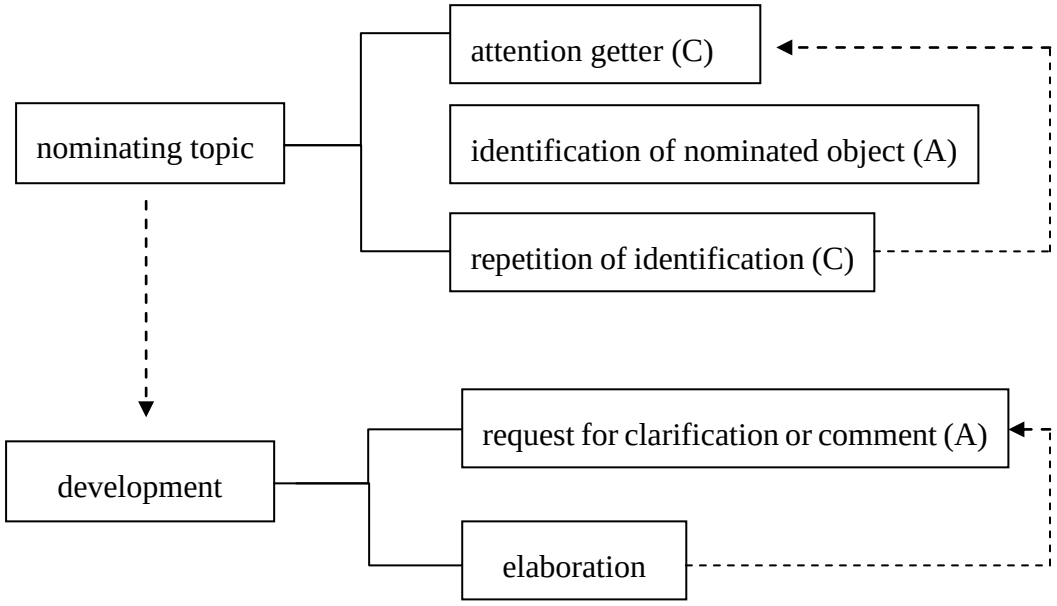
1. Be interesting, e.g.
   a) set up a role play with an appropriate ritual utterance like 'I was the mommy' or 'I'm gunna make some cookies';
   b) call attention, with either a question or a label, to a curiosity or an object which will engage interest.
2. Be persistent.

(Cathcart-Strong 1986: 524)

It seems that the conversational burden is not on an interlocutor to conform to adult rules of discourse, but on the learner to be interesting and engaging enough to continue a topic. Therefore, according to Cathcart-Strong (1986: 527), child second-language learners, in order to motivate interlocutors to interact with them, need to go beyond the traditional adult discourse strategies. The findings constitute the evidence of superordinate strategies in

child discourse and imply that adult interlocutors, rather than peers, may be more dependable as sources of input for child second-language learners as every utterance addressed to them elicited a reply, and their responses were much more likely to be expanded than were those of other children.

Hatch (1978b, as cited in Ellis 1986: 139) proposes a schematic representation of adult-child L2 learner conversation (see Figure 3), which is typically initiated by the child by calling for the adult's attention, i.e. opening the channel. The adult then responds by identifying the object that seems to have drawn the child's attention, which is followed by the child repeating the name of the object. The sequence may terminate at this point, and a similar nominating sequence may be embarked on. If not, the conversation may move into the development stage, stimulated by the adult demanding some comment on the nominated topic from the child, which may be accompanied by the child's attempt at elaboration. Subsequent developments can occur if the adult calls for further comments or requests for clarification. The entire discourse pattern, as suggested by Ellis (1986: 139), implies that "there may be general ways of going about building a conversation" between an adult and a child L2 learner.



A = adult native speaker

C = child L2 learner

Figure 3. A schematic representation of adult-child L2 conversation as described by Hatch (1978b, adapted from Ellis 1986: 139)

The issue of discourse strategies applied by parents in bilingual families constitutes the concern of Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal's (2001) study. It attempts to show that parental discourse strategies have a direct bearing on the levels of mixing found in the child's repertoire in his weaker language, English. As such, the relationship between a child's degree of bilingualism and features of parental input has been investigated following Lanza's (1992) classification of parental discourse strategies, and by adopting a pragmatic perspective. Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal (2001: 61) assume that in bilingual families with a claimed one person-one language input pattern, parents develop various specific strategies when responding to their children's mixed utterances, which probably influence the course of the child's linguistic development. They further add, following Lanza, that bilingual parents can negotiate either a monolingual or a bilingual context of interaction with their children. In their study, a Catalan-speaking mother and an English-speaking father propose a bilingual context of interaction with their son. However, once the child turns three, the father endeavors to engage him in a monolingual discourse and strives to provide as rich a linguistic environment as possible. He imposes a monolingual context of interaction with his son by playing, reading and talking intensively with him. The child responds to his father's higher linguistic and communicative demands with an impressive progression in the productive use of English, and a consequent sharp decline in mixing rates. Another factor which might have been propitious for the child's productive development in English was the use of requests for clarification as well as an explicit teaching technique – a monolingual puppet strategy. The requests for clarification forced the child to make contextually appropriate language choices, whereas the monolingual puppet functioned as a conversation-eliciting device, which asked for equivalences in English of Catalan words or expressions which the father believed the child was capable of giving. Juan-Garau and Pérez-Vidal (2001: 84) believe that "the maintenance of such pretence over an extended period of time would not have been possible without the father's insistence and ability to keep the child involved in play in very imaginative ways." They also notice that their observations are compatible with Lanza's (1992), in that the parent who speaks the minority language is the one who strives harder to negotiate a monolingual context with his or her child through the use of requests for clarification, while the parent who speaks the majority language accepts more of a bilingual context and occasionally resorts to code-switching. It appears that parents' pragmatic choices have an impact on the development of productive family bilingualism. Yet, the sole adherence to the one person-one language norm on the father's side would not have been sufficient to achieve productive bilingualism without the father's de-

termination to get English responses from the child, which has been achieved by the use of the requests for clarification and the adoption of an imaginative teaching strategy, i.e. the use of a monolingual puppet facilitating the child's active use of English. As can be seen, the establishment of productive bilingualism in the home setting requires great effort, especially from the parents who are the conveyors of the minority language.

3.5.2. Child's L2 discourse in instructional setting

Cekaite and Aronsson (2005) emphasize the need to integrate language play in models of L2 learning. Their analysis of data collected in an immersion classroom for immigrant children, where Swedish was the main language of instruction as well as the official lingua franca of the school, reveal collaborative aspects of language play. It has been found that children with a limited L2 proficiency recurrently utilized form-focused language play in spontaneous peer conversations. Attempting to be noticed in a lively classroom with parallel activities, "the pupils often had to use all their ingenuity to secure the attention and maintain the interest of their co-participants" (Cekaite and Aronsson 2005: 187). Therefore, joking alignments and realignments in language play episodes seemed to constitute significant elements of the local politics of classroom life. The collaborative performance was evident in cross-utterance poetics; that is, spontaneous parallelisms across extended series of turns, including rhyming and rhythmically tuned responses, varied intonational patterns, sing song, onomatopoetics, and voice modulations. Playful mislabelings and puns often generated extended repair sequences that could be perceived as informal language lessons focused on the formal aspects of the language. As such, collaborative language play drew the peer group's attention to language form and accuracy, thus creating possibilities for language practice. Cekaite and Aronsson (2005: 188) conclude that their findings can be seen as an empirical underpinning of ludic models of language learning. They further add that the ability to play with a second language constitutes an important aspect of communicative competence and hints at a twofold process that the children were involved in, that of practicing a language and of qualifying as participants in the classroom community.

In another of their studies, Cekaite and Aronsson (2004) explore children's initiatives that move the immersion classroom discourse into the non-serious realm. They address the question of how children with only a basic proficiency in Swedish engage in joking interactions drawing upon the pragmatic awareness in everyday interactions. One

suggestion offered by Cekaite and Aronsson (2004: 374) is to recycle prior speakers' utterances. The current work focuses on playful recyclings constituting recurrent features of young learners' second language repertoires and directs our attention to classroom communities, rather than to teacher-student relations alone. It investigates the dialogical architecture of emergent jokes and treats children's joking events as main analytic units in daily classroom interactions. Examples are selected to illustrate playful recycling, that is, joking events that involve exact or partial repetitions. Cekaite and Aronsson (2004: 373) identify two types of playful recyclings, i.e. intertextual play and role appropriations, and describe them as "important features in informal classroom entertainment and in the formation of a community of learners." Moreover, they make an attempt to show that children create joking events in a variety of participation frameworks, involving just another peer, a peer group, the teacher alone or the entire group. The analysis of the children's interactional repertoires reveals that the joking mode was an important discursive genre in the immersion classroom. The children spontaneously used format tyings (which can be accomplished both verbally by attending to the surface structure of the prior utterance and through embodied action) and other forms of repetition, which provided easily accessible minimalistic means to join in classroom activities and were therefore extensively exploited as ways to enter ongoing interactions. Despite being basic level speakers of Swedish, the children, by employing format tyings and other recyclings of prior talk or classroom texts, managed to entertain their peers in such a way that they secured their attention and created numerous occasions for informal conversations. Within the multiparty format of these conversations, as concluded by Cekaite and Aronsson (2004: 388), they were able to creatively reframe the official business of routine tasks into joking encounters and consequently to consolidate the classroom community as an L2, Swedish, speaking group.

Young learners' use of L2 to convey various linguistic functions identified by Halliday (1975) in the development of L1 (see section 1.1.) constitutes the concern of García's (2007) study. Having observed the use of these functions in a full-immersion EFL context, García endeavors to analyze the ways in which teachers can promote the use of L2 to express different functions in low-immersion contexts. For this purpose, a set of activities has been designed which was supposed to facilitate children's use of the functions and discourse initiations in L2. The quantitative analysis was based on the comparison of the functional production of the pupils in the experimental and control groups, before and after the treatment, in terms of the functions that were used to initiate conversations. The results show that the number of functions of initiation in L2 in the experimental group, after the

treatment, was significantly higher than in the control group. What is more, after the treatment, the children in the experimental group used L1 less frequently than children from the control group. The most common function expressed in L1 in both groups was the personal function. The analysis of the use of this function reveals that when children are not encouraged to use this function in L2, they still use it in L1, which confirms their keen interest in talking about their personal world at this stage of development. García (2007: 44) infers that due to the specific and well-planned activities implemented in low-immersion EFL contexts, teachers can support very young learners in using L2 to convey different functions and to initiate interactions as they usually do in their L1.

Kanagy (1999) addresses the question of how five-year-old children with no knowledge of L2 learn to initiate and respond to L2 discourse sequences, and what techniques the teacher applies to socialize children toward interactional competence in L2 classroom discourse. It has been investigated how three daily routines, i.e. greeting, attendance, and personal introduction, serve as a mechanism for socialization and L2 acquisition in young learners just entering a Japanese immersion classroom. Kanagy (1999: 1468), following Sinclair and Coulthard (1975), defines classroom routines as a communicative context where "a given utterance by one participant (typically, the teacher) elicits one of several fixed replies by co-participant(s) in the exchange." Moreover, classroom routines are powerful organizers of student-teacher interaction during lessons. Data excerpts from several points in the school year reveal increasing autonomy in initiating and responding roles as well as spontaneous incorporation of a routine in a novel situation. Kanagy (1999: 1489) finds that repetition and scaffolding support the children in developing interactional competence, and appear to be sufficient to enable the children to achieve success within the structure of the routines. She explains that by following the teacher's lead and repeating her utterances, the students gradually move toward the independent production of their scripted parts. In spite of the fact that some children learn to apply L2 scripts from familiar routines to new situations, their creative language use basically remained at the one word level throughout the year. It has to be noted that the three daily routines examined in the study differed with regard to their fixedness, with the attendance sequence being the most fixed in form and content, with prescribed formulaic responses, and the personal introduction being the most varied. Kanagy (1999: 1490) posits that if we want to understand how interactional competence develops in L2 classroom, we must take into account not only what students know but how they display their knowledge, which means the ability to conduct appropriate forms of interaction with their co-participants. Since few studies of language socializa-

tion in L2 classroom are longitudinal, Kanagy calls for further research that would investigate how L2, which is acquired in the context of classroom routines, leads to autonomous and creative discourse. This would probably shed light on the process of culturally-mediated second-language acquisition.

Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985: 49–50) offer a taxonomy of twelve learning strategies used by Mexican-American preschool and first-grade children learning English as a second language. They refer to the distinction between a communication and a learning strategy made by Tarone (1983), who defines a learning strategy as an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language, and determines that the primary motivation is not to communicate, as it is in the case of a communication strategy, but to learn. The authors endeavor to investigate what children's linguistic behaviors constitute an effort to further knowledge and initiate or maintain situations allowing practice of the second language in a bilingual classroom. They also attempt to determine if a natural order exists in the development of second language learning strategies by the use of implicational scaling techniques. Their results indicate that the strategies of repetition and memorization, considered the least linguistically demanding and the least interactive of the strategies under investigation, are used first, whereas those most likely to sustain conversation, or which require some degree of metalinguistic awareness such as monitoring and requests of clarification are used at later stages of development. Table 1 provides types and definitions of the twelve second language learning strategies used most commonly by young learners in classroom discourse.

Table 1. Second language learning strategies proposed by Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985)

No	Strategy	Definition
1.	Repetition	Echo/imitation of a word modeled by another, or incorporation of a word or structure used previously into an utterance;
2.	Memorization	Recall by rote of songs, rhymes, or sequences of numbers or related concepts;
3.	Formulaic expression	Words or phrases which function as unanalyzed automatic speech units for the speaker, often serving the function of initiating or continuing a conversation and giving the impression of command of the target language;
4.	Verbal attention getter	Any means by which the speaker attracts the attention of another to him/herself so as to initiate interaction;
5.	Answer in unison	Response by providing the answer aloud together with others;
6.	Talk to self	Practice in target language by engaging in verbal behavior directed to him/herself;
7.	Elaboration	Providing information beyond that which is necessary to carry on the interaction;
8.	Anticipatory answer	Guessing from context to provide a response for an anticipated question, or prematurely fill in a word or phrase in another's statement;
9.	Monitoring	Recognition and verbal correction of one's own error in vocabulary, style, grammar, etc.;
10.	Appeal for assistance	Spontaneously asking another for the correct term or structure, or for help in solving the problem;
11.	Request for clarification	Attempt to broaden understanding or knowledge of the target language by asking the speaker to explain or repeat a previous statement;
12.	Role play	Spontaneous practice of the target language in interaction with another by taking on the role of another and fantasy play.

Lyster (1998) investigates aspects of communicative classroom discourse that may affect the potential of recasts to be noticed as negative evidence by young second-language learners. The analysis of interaction in four primary French immersion classrooms reveals that recasts are the most widely used form of corrective feedback. Lyster (1998: 56) presents a thorough description of how four French immersion teachers used four different types of corrective recasts in relation to different types of non-corrective repetition and positive feedback moves coded as signs of approval. The study attempts to examine the discourse contexts in which recasts naturally occur and whether these contexts appear to provide young classroom learners with helpful opportunities to notice the gap between their initial erroneous utterance and the teacher's corrective reformulation. Allwright and Bailey (1991: 104) suggest that "simple repetition or modeling of the correct form may be useless if the learners cannot perceive the difference between the model and the erroneous forms they produce." They further recommend that L2 classroom learners be allowed "both time and opportunity (…) for self-repair, whether it is self- or other-initiated" (Allwright and Bailey 1991: 107). With specific reference to recasts as a form of corrective feedback, Calvé (1992: 468) describes them as remnants of audiolingualism that minimize the value

of student output. He further suggests that teachers, rather than drawing on such parroting techniques, ought to give priority to self- and peer-correction and to techniques that provide learners with clues. Being aware of the limitations that recasts pose, his study provides data to support the argument that the majority of recasts as used naturalistically by teachers in communicatively oriented L2 classrooms with a primary focus on content, are unlikely to be either negotiated or noticed by young second-language learners as negative evidence. The analysis of students' turns immediately following teachers' feedback demonstrates that recasts did not lead to any student-generated forms of repair. The findings suggest, in the opinion of Lyster (1998: 74), that the four teachers intentionally drew attention to only about one quarter of their recasts by shortening the learner's utterance to locate the error. The remaining three quarters were used in the same ways as non-corrective repetition: ways that kept learners' attention focused on content by primarily providing confirmation or additional information related to the students' message and, to a lesser degree, by seeking confirmation or additional information related to the students' message. Moreover, as added by Lyster (1998: 74), the corrective potential of recasts may be further diminished by the fact that teachers frequently use positive feedback to express approval of the content of learners' messages, irrespective of well-formedness, to accompany in comparable proportions, recasts, non-corrective repetition, and even topic-continuation moves immediately following errors. This suggests that teachers themselves do not consistently use recasts for corrective purposes. Lyster (1998: 53) posits that teachers may need to implement a wider range of feedback techniques, particularly those that lead to student-generated repair, i.e. elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition of error. Despite the questionable effectiveness of recasts as corrective feedback, recasting clearly enables teachers to advance the lesson by keeping students' attention focused on content in spite of gaps in L2 proficiency. This may explain why recasts have occurred to be so frequent in immersion contexts. Furthermore, the small amount of learner uptake, as opposed to the large number of the teachers' topic-continuation moves following recasts, suggests that recasts allow teachers to keep the floor and consequently reinforce the unequal distribution of participation rights between teachers and students in classroom interaction. From the perspective of young second language learners, the study shows considerable ambiguity inherent in communicative classroom discourse, which, as Lyster (1998: 75) notices, has the potential to restrict the development of target-language accuracy in at least two ways. Since ill- and well-formed utterances are equally likely to be followed by a variety of confirming and approving moves initiated by teachers, it remains difficult, if not impossible,

for young learners, firstly, to test hypotheses about the target language, and, secondly, to detect input-output mismatches with respect to form. As a final remark, the author posits that recasts do not allow for much negotiation to take place between teachers and young learners in ways that would intentionally draw students' attention to form and productively engage them as participants in discourse.

Mackey and Oliver's (2002) study has contributed to knowledge about interactional feedback and children's L2 development. They observe that the majority of studies involving children's interaction have focused on child-adult interactional patterns rather than child-child conversations (Mackey and Oliver 2002: 462). Therefore, their analysis investigates the effects of interactional feedback, including negotiation for meaning and recasts, on children's interlanguage. The emphasis of the study is on learning outcomes measured through posttests with question forms chosen as the measure of development. Immediate responses as well as the form and type of feedback have not been taken into consideration. The results demonstrate that interactional feedback facilitates second language development for child learners. An interesting finding, as Mackey and Oliver (2002: 473) note, is that the effects of interactional feedback on L2 development were observed earlier than has been reported in adult studies, which hints at the fact that interactional feedback seem to lead to interlanguage restructuring more quickly for child learners than for adults, at least when the children interact in child learner-adult (native speaker) pairs.

The attempt to explore the relationship between feedback and interactional context in teacher-young learners exchanges in ESL classrooms has been made by Oliver and Mackey (2003). They were interested in whether or not they could identify different interactional contexts, and if so, how these different contexts might contribute to different learning opportunities. The teacher-learner exchanges were categorized as being primarily focused on content, communication, management, or explicit language. Results show that the context of the exchange affected both teachers' provision of feedback and learners' modifications to their original utterances following feedback. Oliver and Mackey (2003: 519) point out that teachers were most likely to provide feedback in exchanges that were focused on explicit language and content, whereas learners were most likely to use feedback provided in explicit language-focused exchanges. They further add that feedback was seldom used in content exchanges and never in management contexts. These findings suggest that the importance of the interactional context should not be underestimated when discussing feedback and point to the need for more finely-grained analyses conducted by SLA researchers investigating its role in the second language classroom.

The phenomenon of assistance in a foreign language classroom discourse has been of interest to Foster and Ohta (2005), whose study, although involving young adults as its subjects, is of particular importance to the empirical part of the present dissertation. The researchers investigate the value of language classroom negotiation of meaning from both cognitive and socio-cultural perspectives. They suggest that more rigorous definitions need to be employed to separate signals of communication problems from signals of interest and encouragement. The results of their research show that the incidence of negotiation meaning was very low. However, the qualitative analysis of the data attempted to investigate other discourse phenomena that occurred in the long stretches of interaction that lacked any signs of meaning negotiation. Specifically, the focus was on the way learners support one another during peer interaction. Foster and Ohta (2005: 413), following Donato (1994), Brooks (1992) and Ohta (2001), state that learners help one another as they interact in a foreign language classroom. They further add that assistance, also called scaffolding (Wood et al. 1976), is a feature of learner talk that is claimed to promote L2 development and which comes about as learners collaborate to create discourse in the target language. The learners involved in their study showed many signs of seeking and providing assistance. They used hesitation fillers, pauses and direct requests for assistance to receive support, and co-constructions, other-corrections and continuers to build their discourse – to provide it. The learners proved to be sensitive to the difficulties their partners were experiencing and proactively offered a variety of conversationally-based assistance, including the aforementioned co-construction and prompting. The research shows that in the absence of meaning negotiation, there is much occurring which should promote language acquisition and that the learners pool their resources to promote each other's language development. Obtaining completely comprehensible input appears to be of lower priority than maintaining a supportive and friendly discourse.

3.6. Research on child's foreign language learning in Poland

Effective teaching of foreign languages to young learners at the kindergarten and early elementary school level has become one of the main educational objectives in the united Europe and other parts of the world. In recent time, Polish educational system has undergone significant changes as far as the lowering of the age at which children begin elementary school and at which foreign language learning becomes obligatory. The core-curriculum

basis of kindergarten education and general development in particular school types (Pol. podstawa programowa wychowania przedszkolnego oraz kształcenia ogólnego w poszczególnych typach szkół) introduces compulsory foreign language education in the first grade of the elementary school (Dziennik Ustaw z 15 stycznia 2009 Nr 4 poz. 17). However, as observed by Siek-Piskozub (2009: 9), the introduction of a foreign language to first graders' curriculum together with lowering the age of the start of elementary education to six constitutes a real challenge. She further adds that the arguments for the early implementation of foreign language learning are of a more global nature, i.e. foreign language training at the early stages of education is conducive to the process of broadening children's cognitive horizons as well as their experiences. Sikora-Banasik (2009: 5) states that it is now that discussions on the usefulness of young learners' foreign language education are diminishing. Yet, its shape has not been fully determined. This section offers an overview of research on child's foreign language learning conducted in Poland in recent years.

Krakowian (2000) undertakes an attempt to formulate the principles of teaching English as a foreign language to children, which take into account both child's general and linguistic development, and which allow for the optimization of foreign language acquisition by this age group. He suggests that the context of teaching a foreign language to children should bear resemblance to the process of L1 acquisition in a natural setting. Moreover, the target language should constitute means of communication between the teacher and learners rather than the teaching objective. The author strongly recommends that in the early stages of teaching a foreign language, young learners should be given the opportunity to learn comprehension and it is the teacher that should be responsible for the provision of comprehensible input, pretending even not to know the learners' mother tongue.

Having observed that the issue of young learners' foreign language didactics has been neglected in Poland, Arabski (2001) published a volume with articles devoted to both theoretical and practical aspects in this field. The authors of the collected papers attempt to introduce significant changes that would enhance teachers' and learners' skills. They deal with the following matters: the relationship between native and foreign language systems in the process of language acquisition, the role of extensive reading in raising learners' linguistic awareness, the presentation of play techniques, the difficulties which may be encountered in the integration of teaching disabled children with open education cycle, the optimal criteria for selecting a foreign language coursebook for children, the optimization of a teaching practice, and professional training of young learners' teachers with concrete

proposals of changes in the educational program currently realized at universities and teacher training colleges.

In a volume edited by Sikora-Banasik (2009), one can find practical solutions with regard to the principles of a didactic approach, appropriate methods and techniques of teaching young learners, and optimal conditions for the development of language skills and fluency. Moreover, an attempt has been made to define linguistic achievements of learners finishing the first stage of elementary education (grades I–III), to discuss the choice of appropriate didactic materials, the use of information-technology and the challenges as well as risks that modern child's foreign language education faces (e.g. teaching FL to children with disfunctions).

Rokita's (2005) research provides, on the other hand, an argument against a very early start in foreign language learning that runs parallel to L1 acquisition. She compares the efficiency of learning EFL in a formal and bilingual family setting. The results of the research clearly show that in such early foreign/second language acquisition the most significant role is played by the quality and quantity of linguistic input, as well as by its provision by parents. Beginning with a two-word stage in the L1, children from bilingual families reached the communicative level within two years, whereas children learning English in a formal setting acquired 200 words, which turned out to be insufficient to go into the multi-word-expression stage. The findings call into question the role of implicit speech development mechanisms when FL acquisition takes place in a formal context.

Szpotowicz (2003) investigated the acquisition of vocabulary by 7/8-year-old children by analysing the process of learning, remembering and recalling vocabulary items after a given period of time, and defining factors that bear impact on vocabulary acquisition, e.g. teachers' skills and personality, learners' concentration during the presentation of the lexical input, emotional attitude to a word, and ease of pronouncing a word. Significant superiority of the ability to recognise over the ability to recall a word has been confirmed in the study. The author concludes that the teacher's role, including his/her personality and pedagogical skills is crucial for children's involvement in the learning process and contributes to a more effective vocabulary acquisition. Raulinajtys (2009) investigated the order of acquisition of nouns, verbs and adjectives by 6-year-old children learning English as a foreign language. The main medium of teaching was storytelling. The author examined both the active (recall) and passive (recognition) knowledge of the above mentioned word classes. The results of the research run counter to the findings obtained by E. V. Clark (1993) for

L1 and Yoshida (1977) for L2. They indicate that it is adjectives rather than nouns that constitute the easiest word class for 6-year-old children to acquire in learning L2.

The efficiency of a lexically driven multisensory syllabus for young learners was the scope of a study conducted by Zawodniak (2005). The syllabus aimed at ensuring the children a functional, informative start to FL learning with the objective to activate the whole language learner. The syllabus appeared to be better suited to 8-year-olds' rather than 9-year-olds' intra-individual learning style. The research highlights the importance of planning L2 classes for 8- and 9-year-olds separately so as not to underestimate the latter's need for a wider range of interpersonal, competitively-organised activities.

The process of teaching a foreign language to 7–10-year-old learners inspired Grywaczewska (2006) to subject the process to close scrutiny. Particular attention was paid to the organisation and structure of classroom activities, taking into account the fact that there might be various factors responsible for either success or failure of teaching at this stage. The research brought to light a significant gap between the goal from the teacher's point of view and from that of the child. The goal in the teacher's understanding meant the acquisition of a particular language item by the child, which was seen as a part of the long-term process of acquiring an FL. The children, on the contrary, found it difficult to identify with such motives as they were focused on short-term goals. Such a mismatch often led to undesirable behaviour (e.g. disruptive actions or simply abandoning the activity). The motives, most frequently observed and mentioned by the teachers, were a sense of victory when winning a competition and an opportunity to present the outcome of one's efforts to others. Motives also seemed to co-occur with increased participation in the activity. However, it was hard to establish a strong relationship between the two factors as there were activities characterized by a high degree of participation and the lack of a motive. Surprisingly, the results revealed sporadic use of play and game-like activities in an average classroom (constituting 40% of the activities examined in the course of the study).

The value of strategy training in teaching an FL to 7 and 11 years of age primary school learners was the focus of Szulc-Kurpaska's (2001) study. The most significant impact of learning strategy training was observed half a year after the completion of the training, when the learners had gone through the period of sensitisation to the FL and had started more systematic learning in the fourth grade. Further research should investigate which linguistic aspects such training has the greatest effect on.

One of the new proposals that has gained popularity is integrating child FL learning with content subjects, as it is believed that the children's FL learning will become more

effective thereby. Olpińska (2004) evaluated the effectiveness of content-and-language integrated learning in kindergartens and offered didactic solutions adjusted to the Polish education system. She states that bilingual programmes for kindergarten children can be successfully implemented in Polish education. They not only support a child's cognitive development but also promote positive attitudes towards FLs and cultures. However, their introduction on a wide scale may face many problems, such as teacher training and access to appropriate didactic materials. Olpińska suggests that the most desirable form of bilingual education for kindergarten children is early total immersion, where the second language forms the only basis for communication, or early partial immersion, where the second language is gradually introduced and coexists with children's mother tongue. This seems to be in line with Pamuła's (2003) research on the integration of French language learning, music and art activities in the first year of the primary school. As in Olpińska's study, the emphasis is put on the holistic development of the child. This model of integrated learning lays great emphasis on musical activities, such as listening and repetition of rhythm patterns and knowledge of pitch and dynamics. It reinforces pupils' phonological awareness, motivates them to learn FLs, and is propitious for the development of their linguistic skills. Such integration calls for a change in the early FL teacher education curriculum to enrich it with arts and music components.

Recognising the role of musical input in language development in young learners, Zwierzycka-Raulinajtys (2007) was interested in finding out if songs included in two popular course-books designed for EFL teaching to 6-year-old children were appropriate for their musical level. She evaluated all the songs in the two books on the basis of two criteria: the level of melody difficulty and the level of rhythmic difficulty. The songs were first evaluated by five musical experts and then, after the lessons where the songs were used, by the language teacher who made field-notes on learners' involvement in singing a particular song and individual recordings of song-singing by each child in the three age groups in question. The learners were also grouped according to their educational profile – general or musical. It turned out that most of the songs from both course-books were too difficult for six-year-olds, and that even the eight-year-olds with additional music education could sing only four out of nine songs. This calls for a need to evaluate the FL course materials for young learners not only from a linguistic point of view but by musical experts as well, if lyrics are to serve as language input.

None of the above mentioned studies have dealt with child's discourse in a foreign language classroom. Moreover, research on classroom discourse conducted in Poland have

mainly focused on high school learners (see section 1.4.4.). Therefore, the paucity of research in this area has compelled the author of the present dissertation to conduct a study on kindergarten children learning English as a foreign language and to explore the discourse produced by them in the two interactional configurations, i.e. the teacher-the learners and the teacher-the puppet-the learners. The implementation of the puppet as a imaginary didactic device was done on purpose so as to appeal to the child's propensity for creating imaginary friends and his/her ability to function simultaneously on two dimensions, one – real and the other – fictitious (see section 2.3.2.). Lee and Coppen (1970: 33–34) consider the puppet as a didactic tool, which constitutes "an amusing extension" of a teacher and which makes the lesson attractive and interesting. However, the term "an amusing extension", in my opinion, should not be treated superficially since it implies the extension of a teacher's domain. It usually happens in the Polish kindergarten context that the teacher of a foreign language is not its native speaker and therefore children may not feel any need to communicate in a given language, which consequently leads to the overuse of Polish in a foreign language classroom. Thus, the puppet may act as a native speaker, teacher's assistant and children's companion. Siek-Piskozub (2001: 210) states that the puppet as an assistant helps the teacher in all kinds of situations, i.e. he communicates with children in a foreign language, provides the answers to the questions, reprimands children in cases of misbehavior.

The above considerations are in line with Slattery's (2008: 10–13) assumptions, who adds that the puppet by becoming a teacher's assistant, establishes and maintains a non-threatening environment, contributes to the enhancement in the exposure to a foreign language, and consequently encourages learners to enter into communication in this language by providing opportunities for language use in a natural context. Moreover, the linguistic material may be introduced and consolidated in a way that is congenial to children, which also allows for the integration of EFL learning with other courses. Slattery concludes that the use of a puppet stimulates various learning modalities such as visual, auditory, tactile and kinaesthetic and supports children's many ways of learning.

Iluk (2006: 86–87) emphasizes the fact that the role of a puppet in teaching a foreign language to children is multifaceted. According to him, it can help the teacher to introduce a new text, vocabulary items and grammar, using solely a foreign language. As such, it is a significant source of linguistic input and constitutes an important device which evokes a foreign language atmosphere. It mediates between the teacher and children, supporting them in classroom communication. For example, the puppet can prompt children

and show them what they are supposed to do in cases of not understanding a given instruction. Apart from that, the puppet can comment on texts and situations, and provide feedback on learners' performance in a foreign language and conduct. As far as the benefits in the psychological domain are concerned, children can acquire more quickly a sense of confidence and trust. The use of a puppet, notes the author, enables them to avoid a feeling of uneasiness evoked by fear, uncertainty, the lack of self-confidence and the ability to utter a whole phrase, etc. The child feels more secure in the presence of a puppet and does not experience anxiety. He/she may use the puppet himself/herself and consequently assume the role of the teacher by helping other learners, e.g. prompting them, asking questions, initiating conversations, providing instruction for a given activity. Iluk (2006: 88) posits that the best results are achieved when one uses as a puppet the figure of an animal because of the potential of children's imagination and their sympathy for nature. If, on the other hand, the teacher uses the figure of a child, then, as stated by Siek-Piskozub (2001: 211), the puppet should possess those features of the appearance which evoke embarrassment among children, i.e. protruding ears, reddish hair, freckles and glasses.

Since no attempt to investigate the puppet's impact on child's discourse in the kindergarten classroom has been made so far, the author of the present dissertation is going to embark on such an analysis. Hence, the next chapter will describe research methodology applied in the study of educational discourse in teaching EFL to Polish kindergarten children.

3.7. Final comments

The current chapter has dealt with children's linguistic development, beginning with the discussion on the nature of children's speech. The controversy over egocentric speech has been presented with reference to research, which signifies that children's early communication might be socialized from the beginning.

Next, we have analyzed the developmental course of first language acquisition. It has been emphasized that sound perception constitutes the earliest of the processes to develop, which already starts in the uterus and is continued after birth in the form of the mastery of speech sounds. Further, we have discussed the progression of children's syntactic development and attempted to identify the relevant stages it is comprised of. The development of children's morphological system has been portrayed with reference to research

findings illustrating the processes it is based on and to factors that may exert influence on children's acquisition in this domain. We have also pointed out that research on children's language underwent a significant change in focus, shifting its center of attention from grammar to discourse. As a result, children's language started to be described in functional terms. There was a need to alter the stereotype of children as noncommunicators into conversationalists who engage in meaningful communication. Researchers have emphasized that the child ought to be considered as a potential co-author of discourse and his communicative capability should be viewed in terms of the social skills he/she is already equipped with. The child has been presented as an interlocutor who searches out meaning and coherence in the input he/she receives as well as in the contributions he/she makes to the communicative process. We have noted that with respect to the timing of acquisition, discourse organization seems to be a late development. Yet, research reveals that children are capable of organizing discourse at some level despite their reliance on adults' scaffolding, and claims that they are unable to decenter in communication. Children's conversational skills have been discussed with regard to turn-taking mechanism, breakdowns in conversation, developing cohesion, and meaningful and sustained talk exchanges.

Having analyzed the processes that first-language acquisition entails, we have proceeded to the discussion of children's L2 competence. It has been assumed that first- and second-language acquisition processes bear a resemblance to each other. However, their similarity depends on the conceptual framework one adopts, including the balance between the biological and cognitive predisposition to acquire particular aspects of a language. Moreover, we have found that it is likely that L2 learners recapitulate the processes that monolingual children go through while acquiring their native language and that first language structures have a minimal effect on the course of second language development, i.e. children use common strategies in approaching L2, regardless of their first language background. Attention has been drawn to the circumstances which diminish interference between the first and second language. These are a supportive L2 social environment and the simultaneous acquisition of two languages with the opportunity to keep the two languages separate in accordance with a specific person or context.

Finally, we have attempted to demonstrate how a child L2 learner strives to become a conversationalist and a fully-fledged participant in second language discourse. The analysis of research findings reveals that the child treats language play as an inseparable element of his/her communication both in natural and instructional settings. The phenomenon of language play has been depicted as a collaborative performance, which draws learners'

attention to language form, thereby offering practice opportunities, evokes intense affective climate, and thus qualifies young learners as members of the classroom community. We have discovered that the joking mode is an important discursive genre in the immersion classroom, where playful recycling, achieved through the use of various forms of repetition, moves the classroom discourse into the non-serious realm. As a result, researchers point to the need to integrate language play in models of L2 learning. Furthermore, numerous parallels have been found between child L2 learner-child L2 native speaker discourse and child-child discourse in L1. We have also directed our attention to differences existing between child-child and child-adult discourse with regard to the types of questions, the number of requests for clarification, the ease of topic nomination, and the boundaries and prevalence of social speech. Adult interlocutors have occurred to provide more reliable sources of input than child interlocutors. We have shown that the discourse patterns emerging in the communication between a child L2 learner and an adult can be schematically represented illustrating general ways of building conversations.

Young L2 learners, in order to motivate their interlocutors to interact with them, need to go beyond traditional adult discourse strategies. For this reason, discourse or input-generating maxims operating in child-child discourse have been proposed that supersede the maxims established for adult discourse. Focusing on the input the children receive, we have discussed parental discourse strategies prevailing in bilingual families and concluded that they have a direct bearing on the mixing rate found in children's repertoire. It has been found that teachers' repetition and scaffolding socialize children toward interactional competence in L2 classroom discourse and appear to be sufficient to enable them to achieve success within the structure of classroom routines. What is more, teachers, due to specific and well-planned activities, can support children in using L2 to convey different functions and to initiate interactions as they usually do in L1. As far as feedback is concerned, it has been observed that recasts, being the most widely used form of feedback in the immersion classroom, are neither negotiated nor noticed by young second language learners as negative evidence. Research findings imply that teachers should implement those feedback techniques that lead to student-generated repair, consequently productively engaging young learners as participants in classroom discourse.

We assume that the implications from studies of the immersion L2 classroom discourse cannot be transmitted to the teaching/learning process in a foreign language classroom context, where the learner suffers from the lack or a minimal contact with a foreign language outside the classroom. For this reason, the last section of the chapter presented a

review of research on child's foreign language learning conducted in Poland, which indicates that studies carried out in this area have focused on a great variety of aspects. However, none of them have dealt with child's educational discourse in a FL classroom. For this reason, the author of the present dissertation undertook the attempt to investigate the issue under consideration by conducting a study, whose methodology design will be illustrated in the forthcoming chapter.

Chapter 4: The study of educational discourse in teaching EFL to Polish kindergarten children. Description of the research methodology

4.0. Introduction

The present chapter begins with the research tradition found in an EFL context and discusses the characteristics of quantitative and qualitative research as well as of mixed paradigms. Next, we proceed to the description of the research methodology applied in the study, differentiating between the background study, investigating the impact of the puppet as a teacher's assistant and as a provider of authentic input, and the study proper, examining the educational discourse occurring in an EFL kindergarten context in the two interactional configurations, i.e. the teacher-the learners and the teacher-the puppet-the learners.

4.1. Research tradition in EFL learning and teaching

The research tradition in EFL learning and teaching has mainly revolved around a binary distinction between qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. Those who draw such a distinction, as pointed out by Nunan (1992: 3), suggest that quantitative research constitutes an obtrusive and controlled measurement, which is objective, generalizable, outcome oriented and independent of the researcher. Qualitative research, on the other hand, is perceived as a naturalistic and uncontrolled observation, which is subjective, process-oriented, exploratory and descriptive. Its outcomes are not generalizable to other

instances beyond the immediate context in which the research has been conducted. Consequently, they might be of limited utility to the wider population of second language learners. As Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 115) put it, "while qualitative analysis will allow us to study individual performance closely, it may or may not represent the behavior of other learners and is therefore of questionable value for generalization to language acquisition by others." Mackey and Gass (2005: 2) notice that quantitative research generally starts with an experimental design, in which the formulation of a hypothesis is followed by the quantification of data, which are further subjected to analysis by means of inferential statistics. According to J. D. Brown (1988, as cited in Nunan 1992: 9), good experimental research should exhibit several key characteristics. It should be systematic (the study should follow clear, procedural rules), logical (which means progression in a clear step-by-step fashion, from question formation to data collection and analysis), tangible (the data should be collected from the real world), replicable (whether an independent researcher can reproduce the study) and reductive (whether the research establishes patterns and relationships among individual variables, facts, and observable phenomena). On the contrary, qualitative studies are not set up as experiments, and the analysis is interpretive rather than statistical. Their importance and utility, as pointed out by Mackey and Gass (2005: 162), is increasingly being recognized in the field of second language research. Jacob (1987, as cited in Seliger and Shohamy 1989: 121) describes research design in this approach as emergent. The procedures have been compared to a funnel or an upside-down pyramid, which means that the investigation progresses from the general to the specific. Qualitative research constitutes the example of hypothesis-generating research. Once data have been collected, hypotheses or questions may be derived from those data. As Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 121) point out, the methodology for conducting qualitative research is much more open-ended than it is in experimental research, and is directed by the context of the particular research study. In contrast, as stated by Mackey and Gass (2005: 163), quantitative research usually begins with a thoroughly defined research question that guides the process of data collection and analysis. Thus, whereas quantitative researchers set out to test specific hypotheses, qualitative researchers tend to approach the research context with the purpose of observing whatever may be present there, allowing further questions to come forth from the context.

Nunan (1992: 13) asserts that there are two procedures available to researchers, and these are inductivism and deductivism. Deductive research begins with a hypothesis or theory and then looks for evidence that would either support or refute that hypothesis or theory. Inductivism determines to derive general principles, theories and truths from an

investigation and documentation of single instances. In that sense, quantitative research follows a deductive path of reasoning, whereas the qualitative paradigm is inductive, starting from a few perceived notions, followed by a gradual fine-tuning and narrowing of focus.

In view of the above, Nunan (1989: 5) suggests that we should draw a two-way distinction between the psychometric or quantitative tradition and the interpretive or qualitative one. He further adds that the qualitative approach emerged partly in reaction to the psychometric tradition since it focuses more on processes of instruction and learning than on the end products or outcomes, and is mainly concerned with documenting and analyzing what actually occurs in the classroom.

The following two subsections will discuss the characteristics of the two research paradigms in greater detail.

4.1.1. Quantitative research

According to Mackey and Gass (2005: 137), quantitative research can be conceptually divided into two categories: associational (correlational) and experimental. What is typical of both types is that researchers endeavor to explore the relationship between or within variables. The aim of associational research is to determine the strength of that relationship, which is usually tested statistically through correlations so as to enable the researcher to establish how closely two variables are related in a given population. Associational research is not concerned with causation, but with co-occurrence. Correlation, as stated by Mackey and Gass (2005: 145), can be used in different ways, i.e. to test a relationship between or among variables, or to make predictions. Predictions are dependent on the outcome of a strong relationship between or among variables. If variables are strongly related, researchers can often predict the likelihood of the presence of one from the presence of the other(s). In experimental studies, on the other hand, researchers manipulate one or more variables (independent variable) to specify the effect on another variable (dependent variable). This manipulation is often described as a treatment and the researcher's aim, in this case, is to establish whether there is a causal relationship.

All experimental approaches, as Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 136) observe, entail the control or manipulation of the three basic components of the experiment: the population, the treatment, and the measurement of the treatment. They further add that experimen-

tal research is concerned with investigating the effects of specified and controlled treatments given to subjects usually arranged into groups, which can be formed especially for the purposes of the experiment or they can be intact in the sense that they already exist prior to the research. It is up to the researcher to decide whether to use pre-existing groups, as they occur in nature, or to construct them for the experiment. The difference between natural groups and those formed specifically for an experiment constitutes one of the features that distinguishes true experimental designs from quasi-experimental ones. The treatment, on the other hand, is not a random experience which the groups may undergo, but a controlled and intentional episode, such as exposure to a specially constructed language teaching method or materials presented under controlled circumstances. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 137) point out that treatment constitutes the independent variable in the experimental research. Finally, measurement or observation refers to the way the effects of the treatment are going to be evaluated or observed.

Experimental research designs may be grouped into several categories, all of which have a number of variations depending on the conditions under which the research is being conducted. Following Seliger and Shohamy (1989) and Mackey and Gass (2005), we will limit our discussion to single group designs, control group designs, factorial designs and quasi-experimental designs.

In the single group designs paradigm we distinguish between one-shot design, one group pre-test/post-test design and time-sampling designs. It is worth noting that, as Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 141) put it, "the experimental group acts as its own control." A comparison is drawn between its performance without treatment and its performance with treatment. One-shot design can be described in terms of a single treatment given to a single group or individual, who are then observed, tested and measured. This design might also be referred to as the pilot study design. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 138) add that it can serve as a means of pinpointing what to avoid in the experimental research. However, it does not represent a viable design to many researchers. One group pre-test/post-test design, also known as repeated measures design, attempts to use the subjects as their own controls, eliciting multiple samples from them over time. As Mackey and Gass (2005: 150) point out, all tasks or all treatments are given to different individuals in different orders, which results in multiple measurements coming from each participant. Time-sampling designs, referred to as time-series designs, involve numerous observations taken before treatment, whose aim is to establish an initial baseline and after which a regular pattern of change should emerge, which would be expected as a result of time, incidental exposure to other language sources,

and maturation. A noticeable difference between the observation immediately preceding the treatment and the observation following the treatment can then be assumed to constitute the outcome of the experimental treatment.

Control group designs involve the comparison of the treatment group to a group that receives no treatment. As Mackey and Gass (2005: 148) point out: "a true experimental design will have some form of comparison between groups." This design assumes, as observed by Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 141), that the control group represents the same population as the experimental group as if we were comparing the same individuals with and without treatment. It is comprised of two categories, i.e. static group or pre-experimental design and pre-test/post-test design with randomization of groups. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 142) state that in static group design a treatment is administered to one group and its performance is compared with another, seemingly equivalent group which has received no treatment. However, this type of design poses a difficulty in terms of groups' equivalence before treatment, which also implies that the differences occurring in their performance on the dependent variable may be due to intrinsic features such as first language background, sex, exposure to the second language, the time of the day during which instruction takes place, etc. This design may also be considered as quasi-experimental. Pre-test/post-test design with randomization of groups entails subjects' arbitrary assignment to groups, which, in the opinion of Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 143), provides better control of variables that could affect internal validity and enables us to claim that any effects of extraneous variables occur by chance and that that chance is equally distributed between both groups. In fact, as claimed by Mackey and Gass (2005: 146), "randomization is usually viewed as one of the hallmarks of experimental research." In this design, pretreatment testing is carried out in order to establish learners' initial level of ability and knowledge, whereas the post treatment procedure – to measure learning.

Another category of experimental research is known as factorial designs, which are similar to the control group designs in that they group subjects by randomization and involve pre- and post-testing as well as treatments. The difference, as noted by Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 145), is that they examine the effects of several independent variables on the dependent variable. In simple experimental designs, the additional variables are viewed as extraneous variables which must be controlled if an effect is to be attributed to a specific independent variable. Yet, in factorial designs, more than one variable may be treated as an independent variable. Finally, there are quasi-experimental designs, which are constructed from situations which already exist in the real world, and, as Seliger and Shohamy (1989:

148) state, are probably more representative of the conditions found in an educational context.

4.1.2. Qualitative research

According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 118), qualitative methods originally developed from methodologies of field anthropologists and sociologists concerned with studying human behavior within the context in which that behavior would occur naturally and in which the role of the researcher would not affect the normal behavior of the subjects. Mason (1996: 3) also discusses the nature and origin of qualitative studies and claims: "qualitative research – whatever it might be – certainly does not represent a unified set of techniques or philosophies, and indeed has grown out of a wide range of intellectual and disciplinary traditions." Jacob (1987, as cited in Seliger and Shohamy 1989: 119) posits that there has been an increased use of qualitative research approaches in psychology, education, communication, and discourse analysis. It has also been observed by Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 119) that investigators have progressively been incorporating the procedures and methods associated with the qualitative paradigm into second language research. They explain that a great deal of second language acquisition research is concerned with classroom learning, to which it is not easy to apply the controls vital for experimental research, and further point out that despite the fact that qualitative research methods do not control for variables, the development of meticulous methods for data collection and analysis have produced results that would not be possible through experimental designs. Van Lier (1988, as cited in Nunan 1989: 6) also notices the value of qualitative research and justifies his focusing on this tradition on several grounds. He claims that it is relevant to increase the knowledge of what actually occurs in second language classrooms, which can only be achieved by collecting data in the classroom setting. This context is not only a linguistic or cognitive one, but also essentially a social one. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 121) also note that qualitative research seems to be more appropriate for describing the social context of second language, e.g. dyadic speech interactions, frequencies and descriptions of speech acts in given language-use contexts, and descriptions of teacher and learner language in the language classroom.

Detailed definitions of qualitative research, in Mackey and Gass's (2005: 162–163) view, usually include the following features: rich description, natural and holistic represen-

tation, few participants, emic perspectives, and cyclical and open-ended process. First of all, qualitative studies are characterized by rich description of the phenomena under scrutiny, which means that researchers attempt to provide careful and detailed descriptions as opposed to the quantification of data. What is more, as Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 121) note, the descriptions in qualitative research are confined to observable second language acquisition rather than the actual language processing, which is by definition internal. Secondly, qualitative researchers tend to be interested in presenting a natural and holistic picture of the phenomena being studied. This picture encompasses a broader sociocultural context as well as micro-level phenomena. Thirdly, they work with fewer participants and are less concerned about issues of generalizability. Although qualitative research outcomes, as noticed by Mackey and Gass (2005: 180), are rarely directly transferable from one context to another, the extent to which their findings may be transferred depends on the similarity of the context. Moreover, qualitative researchers aim to interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people attach to them – that is, to adopt an emic perspective, or the use of categories that are meaningful to members of the speech community under study. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 118) add that the cultural or intellectual biases of the researcher should not alter the collection, interpretation or presentation of the data. The data should be presented from the perspective of the subjects or observed groups. They (Seliger and Shohamy 1989: 120) claim that "the ultimate goal of qualitative research is to discover phenomena such as patterns of second language behavior not previously described and to understand those phenomena from the perspective of participants in the activity." Finally, research is often process-oriented and open-ended, which refers to the cyclical data analysis. Basically, this involves the process of data collection, followed by data analysis, and a hypothesis-formation stage based on the first round of data collection, followed by a second and more focused round of data compilation in which hypotheses are tested and further refined, with the process continuing until a rich and complete picture of the phenomenon is obtained. This process can be described, as claimed by Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 121), in terms of the spiral, where there is a repetition of the cycles of observation and analysis. Simultaneously with the research progression, each subsequent stage of analysis may enable the researcher to focus on a different aspect of the phenomenon for observation, as the picture becomes more narrowed-down (the process described as a funnel or an upside down pyramid, see section 4.1.). Mackey and Gass (2005: 179) conclude that cyclical research constitutes the process by which researchers bring increasing focus to their topic of interest. The fact that research questions or hypotheses may be fine-tuned in the process of data analysis

led J. D. Brown (2003: 485) to make claims that "one of the great strengths often cited for qualitative research is its potential for forming new hypotheses." According to Mackey and Gass (2005: 179), a similar approach to the cyclical process that guides qualitative data analysis is known as grounded theory. This also involves developing theory based on, or grounded in, data that have been systematically collected and analyzed. Grounded theory seeks to avoid placing predetermined notions on the data, with researchers preferring to let the data guide the analysis, and not the other way around. By following grounded theory, researchers often attempt to evaluate data from multiple vantage points, which enables them to achieve a more complete picture of the phenomena under investigation.

Qualitative research, as pointed out by Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 122), utilizes a variety of means to collect data. Several different methods are usually used in the same study in order to compile a more complete view of the activity or event being described. Mackey and Gass (2005: 167) enumerate the following techniques of data collection: interviews, diaries/journals, case studies and observational techniques. Each method can be seen as submitting its own piece of the puzzle in researchers' attempts to arrive at a rich, detailed, participant-oriented picture of the issues under study. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 123) assert that the use of a variety of methods to collect data allows the researcher to validate findings through triangulation, which expands the research perspective and signifies that the same pattern or example of behavior is sought in different sources. As Mackey and Gass (2005: 181) state, one method alone cannot provide adequate support. It may take two or more independent sources to confirm the study and its conclusions. They define triangulation as involving the use of "multiple research techniques and multiple sources of data in order to explore the issues from all feasible perspectives." D. M. Johnson (1992: 146) notices the value of triangulation in that it diminishes observer or interviewer bias and enhances the validity and reliability (accuracy) of the information. Of a similar opinion are Allwright and Bailey (1991: 73), who declare that concurrently with the increasing sophistication of language classroom research procedures, we have come to recognize the value of multiple perspectives in data collection and analysis. According to Denzin (1970: 472), triangulation can take several different forms. One of them is data triangulation, which means using a variety of sampling strategies. Another is investigator triangulation, where more than one observer contributes to the findings. Methodological triangulation refers to using different methods (e.g. observation, analysis of transcripts, and self-report surveys) to collect the data. Finally, theoretical triangulation implies using multiple perspectives to analyze the same set of data.

As observed by Mackey and Gass (2005: 183), qualitative research can yield valuable and unique insights into the second language learning process. They point out that if appropriate research methods are chosen to address a particular problem, and if the right standards of empirical rigor are achieved through triangulation of research perspectives, consideration of emic perspectives, and cyclical data collection and analysis, then qualitative research can reliably help us to a obtain a deeper understanding of the nature of second language learning.

Ethnography, being the main research method in the present inquiry, is identified by Chaudron (2000, as cited in Mackey and Gass 2005: 165) as the most typical and concrete example of qualitative research. According to him, it does not usually use instruments, but rather processes that are supposedly free of bias and prior assumptions, i.e. free, prolonged observation, at times participant observation, open-ended interviews, and triangulation of information and interpretation. Mackey and Gass (2005: 169) add diaries to the list. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995: 1) provide us with a broad definition of ethnography:

> We see the term (ethnography) as referring primarily to a particular method or sets of methods. In its most characteristic form it involves the ethnographer participating, overtly or covertly, in people's lives for an extended period of time, watching what happens, listening to what is said, asking questions – in fact, collecting whatever data are available to throw light on the issues that are the focus of the research.

The above definition implies that ethnography encompasses eager participation, involvement, regular observation and exploration. Apart from that, ethnographic research, in D. M. Johnson's opinion (1992: 134), attempts to "describe and interpret the cultural behavior, including communicative behavior of a group." It results that it involves not only description, but also adequate explanation of the factors that may influence the phenomena under investigation. This view complies with Watson-Gegeo and Ulichny's (1988, as cited in Nunan 1992: 57) declaration that ethnography should be descriptive as well as explanatory. In that sense, it goes beyond description to analysis, interpretation, and explanation. They add that apart from "thick" explanation, ethnographic research is characterized by the adoption of a grounded approach to data, which, as pointed out by Chaudron (2000, as cited in Mackey and Gass 2005: 166), helps to relate the observations to one another and to larger contexts.

Mackey and Gass (2005: 168) observe that the focus on group behavior and the cultural patterns constituting the basis of that behavior is one of the main principles of ethnography distinguished by Watson-Gegeo (1988) in her review article. Therefore, ethno-

graphic research takes into account those data which stem from the natural events in the research context. Another important feature of ethnographic research, as identified by Mackey and Gass, is the holistic approach, adopted to describe and explain a particular pattern in relation to a whole system of patterns. Data are viewed in such a way so as to avoid separating them into their components, and preferably following the interpretations of the people that are involved in the research, i.e. the subjects of the study. In other words, ethnographic research strives to present an emic perspective of the phenomena under investigation, that is, to conduct research from the participants' point of view, using categories relevant to a particular group and cultural system. The characteristic features of ethnographic research are illustrated in the following table (see Table 2):

Table 2. Characteristics of ethnographic research (adapted from Nunan 1992: 56)

Characteristic	Gloss
Contextual	The research is carried out in the context in which the subjects normally live and work.
Unobtrusive	The researcher avoids manipulating the phenomena under investigation.
Longitudinal	The research is relatively long-term.
Collaborative	The research involves the participation of stakeholders other than the researcher.
Interpretive	The researcher carries out interpretive analyses of the data.
Organic	There is interaction between questions/hypotheses and data collection/interpretation.

Chaudron (1988: 46) and Mackey and Gass (2005: 170) point out that ethnography is a rigorous tradition in its own right, encompassing intensive research over an extended period of time, considerable training, detailed and continuous record keeping, extensive participatory involvement of the researcher in the classroom, and careful interpretation of the usually multifaceted data. The research questions employed in these studies, as added by Mackey and Gass, can be dynamic, subject to constant revision, and refined as the research unfolds new knowledge. Van Lier (1988: 3) puts forth the case for an ethnographic approach to the analysis of language classrooms. He states: "it is ethnography, with its focus on a thorough description of the investigated phenomena, that is most appropriate for conducting classroom-oriented research. Experimental studies can never fully control all the different variables operating in the language classroom." He perceives ethnography as a valid research paradigm in its own right and claims: "(…) ethnography is theory-building, and thus the core of a humanistic approach to social science (…)" (van Lier 1988: 54). As such, as observed by Nunan (1989: 8), many researchers assume that ethnographic approaches speak more readily to the concerns of the classroom practitioner, who is likely to

be more interested in gaining insights into his/her own classroom processes rather than establishing generalizable truths.

LeCompte and Goetz (1982, as cited in Nunan 1992: 57) point out that ethnography is defined, among others, in terms of participant and non-participant observation. Since the current study implements observation as a main research procedure, let us now briefly characterize it. According to Mason (1996: 60), observation usually refers to "methods of generating data which involve the researcher immersing [him- or herself] in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events, and so on, within it." It is, as pointed out by Mackey and Gass (2005: 186–187), a useful means of obtaining in-depth information about such phenomena as the types of language, activities, interactions, instruction, and events that occur in second and foreign language classrooms. Additionally, observations can allow the study of a behavior at close range with many important contextual variables present. Over time and due to a repeated character of observations, the researcher can gain a deeper and more multilayered understanding of the participants of the study and their context (Mackey and Gass 2005: 175–176). Gass and Mackey (2007: 167) note that researchers usually rely on several data collection procedures when making observations in a classroom setting. These may entail field notes, observation schemes, and a mechanical means of recording the lesson, such as audio or video recording. Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 120) differentiate between participant and non-participant observation. The greater involvement in the investigated phenomena, as claimed by Pilch and Bauman (2001: 321), the more searching the observation leading to a better understanding of the observed reality. And yet, as they further add, subjectivism increases, which evinces itself in emotionally-loaded field notes and more selective attention. It hints at the fact that participant observation does not suffice to present an objective state of affairs. As Nunan (1992: 98) notes, "there is no such thing as 'objective observation', that what we see will be determined, at least in part, by what we expect to see." As such, the non-participant observation minimizes the threat of subjectivism and helps to achieve a comparative plane for the data obtained. The purpose of non-participant observation, as stated by Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 120), should be to reconstruct what the subjects are experiencing as accurately as possible, which in second language acquisition means trying to comprehend the phenomena of second language from the perspective of the second language learner and not from the perspective of the researcher.

4.1.3. Mixed paradigms

The distinction between qualitative and quantitative approach, as added by Nunan (1992: 3), has been viewed as simplistic and naive by most commentators dealing with applied linguistics. Despite the fact that the differences between the two paradigms are significant and at times impossible to overcome, still, as pointed out by Nunan (1989: 9), Allwright and Bailey (1991: 62), Mackey and Gass (2005: 2), the relationship is best thought of as a continuum of research types rather than as dichotomies. As Mackey and Gass (2005: 164) put it, "the growing practice of utilizing qualitative and quantitative data illustrates the fact that these two research approaches should not be viewed as opposing poles in dichotomy, but rather as complementary means of investigating the complex phenomena at work in second language acquisition." The long-standing debate between those who favor psychometric, or quantitative studies, and those who are more inclined towards more qualitative approaches seems to be quite heated. Reichardt and Cook (1979: 232) argue that qualitative and quantitative research paradigms are in many respects indistinguishable, and that "researchers in no way follow the principles of a supposed paradigm without simultaneously assuming methods and values of the alternative paradigms." The solution to this problem is offered by Allwright and Bailey (1991: 65), who claim that quantitative and qualitative approaches to data analysis can be combined. They further add that language classroom researchers are calling increasingly for judicious selection and combined approaches, rather than rigid adherence to one approach over another (e.g. van Lier 1988).

Another insightful analysis of research traditions in applied linguistics is provided by Grotjahn (1987, as cited in Nunan 1992: 4; Mackey and Gass 2005: 2), who points out that a quantitative-qualitative distinction can refer to three different aspects of research. Therefore, in analyzing actual research studies, it is necessary to take into account the manner of data collection (whether experimental or naturalistic), the type of data yielded by the investigation (quantitative or qualitative), and the type of analysis conducted on the data (whether statistical or interpretive). According to Grotjahn, mixing and matching these variables enables us to distinguish ten research paradigms, two of them being of pure nature and the remaining of mixed configuration, as shown in the outline below (Grotjahn 1987: 59–60, as quoted in Nunan 1992: 6):

PURE FORMS

Paradigm 1: exploratory-interpretive

a) non-experimental design
b) qualitative data
c) interpretive analysis

Paradigm 2: analytical-nomological
a) experimental or quasi-experimental design
b) quantitative data
c) statistical analysis

MIXED FORMS

Paradigm 3: experimental-qualitative-interpretive
a) experimental or quasi-experimental design
b) qualitative data
c) interpretive analysis

Paradigm 4: experimental-qualitative-statistical
a) experimental or quasi-experimental design
b) qualitative data
c) statistical analysis

Paradigm 5: exploratory-qualitative-statistical
a) non-experimental design
b) qualitative data
c) statistical analysis

Paradigm 6: exploratory-quantitative-statistical
a) non-experimental design
b) quantitative data
c) statistical analysis

Paradigm 7: exploratory-quantitative-interpretive
a) non-experimental design
b) quantitative data
c) interpretive analysis

Paradigm 8: experimental-quantitative-interpretive
a) experimental or quasi-experimental design
b) quantitative data
c) interpretive analysis

Yet another framework for analyzing types of research is proposed by J. D. Brown (1988, as cited in Nunan 1992: 8), who, being mainly concerned with quantitative research, differentiates between primary and secondary research. He points out that secondary research entails reviewing the literature in a given area and synthesizing the research carried out by others, whereas primary research derives from the primary sources of information (e.g. a group of students who are learning a language) and embraces case studies (centered

on a single individual or limited number of individuals), and statistical studies (being basically cross-sectional in nature).

In an attempt to go beyond the binary distinction between qualitative and quantitative research, scholars have opted for other research approaches. Chaudron (1988, as cited in Nunan 1992: 3), for example, distinguishes four research traditions in applied linguistics:

- psychometric tradition – which investigates the effectiveness of particular methods, activities, and techniques by measuring language gains through the use of the experimental method;
- interaction analysis – which attempts to specify classroom behaviors and interactions by the use of various observation systems and schedules;
- discourse analysis – which involves the analysis of classroom discourse through the study of classroom transcripts;
- ethnography – which aims to obtain insights into the classroom as a cultural system through naturalistic, uncontrolled observation and description.

However, Nunan (1992: 3–4) argues that discourse analysis and interaction analysis could be treated as methods of data collection rather than distinct research traditions in their own right.

A different categorization of research kinds is offered by Seliger and Shohamy (1989: 17), who identify theoretical, applied and practical research. They claim that each kind of research deepens our understanding and knowledge of second language phenomena. Furthermore, in their opinion, such a division is valuable since it allows for embracing a wide variety of possible topics and questions in second language research and to progress from constructing theoretical models to investigating the applications of theoretical constructs, and consequently to utilizing theoretical and applied findings in language teaching methodologies and classroom language learning. They emphasize that each category of research may contribute to the revision of the content and structure of other categories, which results in establishing relationships between these three kinds of research. Thus, the classification offered by Seliger and Shohamy hints at the interaction between the above-mentioned research types, with the relationships being not unidirectional.

In spite of a significant number of research traditions and the assumption that the dichotomy between quantitative and qualitative paradigms leads to oversimplification, it does, as observed by Nunan (1992: 20), represent a real, not an ostensible, distinction, and

acts as an effective form of organization of research in second language learning and teaching.

4.2. The study of educational discourse in teaching EFL to Polish kindergarten children: an ethnographic approach

The foregoing theoretical considerations on research tradition in EFL learning and teaching enable us to set the scene for the presentation of the methodological part of the present dissertation.

The current study has been conducted in the context of Polish foreign language education at the kindergarten level. It attempted to describe and explore educational discourse in teaching EFL to kindergarten children under two sets of circumstances, i.e. with the presence of a puppet functioning as a native speaker of English – a teacher's assistant and a provider of authentic input, and in the absence of this imaginative teaching tool. The author, by adopting an ethnographic approach, employed three different methods for gathering data so as to provide a holistic, detailed, contextually grounded, and emic perspective of the issue under scrutiny and to employ methodological triangulation. The following methods of data collection were utilized: participant and non-participant observation, as well as audio recording. The inquiry consisted of two parts, i.e. the background study, which set the scene for the study proper – the analysis of educational discourse in EFL kindergarten classroom (see Table 3). All the procedures and methods utilized in this investigation are presented in more detail in the sections which follow.

Table 3. Research overview

		Background study	**Study proper**
STAGE 1	Time allocation	25.10.06 –21.02.07	25.10.06 –29.11.06
	Participants	PG1, PG2, CG	PG1, PG2, CGP
	Research procedure	1. Participant observation	Audio recording
	Research tool	Teacher's diary	
	Research procedure	2. Non-participant observation	Lesson transcripts
	Research tool	Observation sheet	
STAGE 2	Time allocation	26.02.07 –21.05.07	26.02.07 –02.04.07
	Participants	PG1, PG2, CGP	CG, CGP
	Research procedure	1. Participant observation	Audio recording
	Research tool	Teacher's diary	
	Research procedure	2. Non-participant observation	Lesson transcripts
	Research tool	Observation sheet	

4.2.1. The background study: the impact of a puppet as a teacher's assistant

The background study consisted of two main research procedures, i.e. participant and non-participant observation. In order to provide a detailed description of this investigation, let us now present the objectives of the study, its participants, treatment, research procedures, research tools, time allocation and methods of data analysis, respectively.

4.2.1.1. Objectives of the study

The background study, being exploratory-descriptive in nature, attempted to compare the behavior of the children under two sets of conditions, i.e. in the presence of the puppet and in its absence. It investigated the children's reaction to the puppet acting as a native speaker of English and the teacher's assistant. Of particular importance for scrutiny was the issue of whether and to what extent the puppet influences teaching EFL to kindergarten children. Specifically, what are the aspects of the lesson and of the children's performance that the puppet exerts an effect on. As such, the investigation addressed the following research questions:

(1) What is the reaction of the children to the puppet functioning as a native speaker of English and the teacher's assistant?
(2) How and to what degree does the puppet exert influence on the chosen aspects of a lesson?
(3) How and to what degree does the puppet exert influence on the chosen aspects of the children's behavior during the lesson?
(4) Is there any effect of habituation to the presence of the puppet? If so, what are the ways it evinces itself?
(5) How can the puppet be used as an effective didactic tool in teaching a foreign language to kindergarten children?

The teacher-researcher decided to approach the above-mentioned issues, for they will enable us not only to scrutinize the problem under study, that is the impact of a puppet as teacher's assistant in teaching EFL to kindergarten children, but also to set the setting for the study proper, i.e. the analysis of educational discourse in EFL kindergarten context.

4.2.1.2. Participants

The study has been conducted on children from two kindergartens from Poznań and involved three groups of children, including two puppet's groups – comprised of children from Przedszkole nr 43, and one control, consisting of children from Przedszkole nr 104. The puppet's group no 1 (later called PG1) was composed of nine children (4 girls and 5 boys), including six 6-year-olds and three 5-year-olds. The puppet's group no 2 (later called PG2) consisted of 8 children (4 girls and 4 boys), including seven 6-year-olds and one 5-year-old child. The control group (later called CG) comprised ten children (3 girls and 7 boys), including eight 6-year-olds and two 5-year-old children. Having interviewed the children's parents before the onset of the study, it occurred that 20% of children from both puppet's groups had been learning English for two years, 40% - for 3 years, whereas the remaining 40% did not have any experience in learning EFL. As far as CG is concerned, all the children started to learn EFL at the beginning of the study. In the course of the study each group attended two half an hour English classes a week.

4.2.1.3. Treatment

The study has been conducted on children who were taught English as a foreign language (EFL) from the course book titled "Kraina Baśni" ("The land of fairy-tale") written by Agnieszka Horyza. The program, consisting of several parts, each devoted to a particular age group, utilizes fairy-tales as a main didactic tool in teaching EFL to kindergarten children. The way each unit of the course book is designed and vocabulary is taught deserves special attention. First, vocabulary is presented to the learner, then it is implemented in a fairy-tale the children listen to, which is then followed by a stage of consolidation. Hence, listening to a fairy-tale is always preceded by a stage when new vocabulary items are introduced. Children become familiarized with characters, objects, names of actions, and properties of characters and objects performing in a story. The subsequent stage is composed of the teacher telling a fairy-tale, which is accompanied by various activities and games whose aim is to help children to retain the vocabulary. The final stage attempts to consolidate the set of lexical items from the story. It is comprised of tasks which go beyond the world of the story and link it with the world outside, that is, with the children's immediate environment. In this way the convention of the story is abandoned. The purpose of this stage is to make the child associate new vocabulary items not only with the story's setting, but also with other contexts. Each unit is completed by the performance of the story. The vocabulary is introduced in a three-fold way, namely, visual, auditory and kinaesthetic. Moreover, vocabulary items appear in subsequent stories, which enable the child to revise the words that constituted the framework of previous stories. This feature complies with the condition of cyclical learning of vocabulary mentioned by Cameron (2001: 74), who states: "learning words is a cyclical process of meeting new words and initial learning, followed by meeting those words again and again, each time extending knowledge of what the words mean and how they are used in the foreign language." It allows the child for a gradual expansion of his/her lexicon in a foreign language, simultaneously maintaining contact with the already acquired vocabulary items.

The author of the present dissertation, being the teacher of English of all the groups involved in the study, decided to use the puppet of a small bear – called Teddy – and informed children that he came from London to teach them English. He did not speak any words in Polish. Thus, the puppet was endowed with personality and became animated both by the teacher and learners.

In the first stage of the study, later referred to as Study 1, the puppet was used only in PG1 and PG2. CG was taught EFL without the puppet. In the second stage of the study, later referred to as Study 2, the puppet was introduced in CG (later called CGP), being utilized in all investigated groups.

The puppet's role in EG1 and EG2 was to help the teacher to conduct the lessons by:

- greeting children at the beginning of the lesson;
- introducing new vocabulary and phrases;
- modeling various communicative situations/dialogues in a pair with the teacher;
- asking questions;
- providing feedback on their performance in English;
- commenting on their behavior;
- giving instructions;
- organizing various communicative activities designed by the author of the study.

In CG, being taught without the puppet (Study 1), all of the above mentioned activities were performed by the teacher. However, they were undertaken by the puppet in Study 2, when it was introduced in CGP.

4.2.1.4. Research procedures

The background research entailed two research procedures, i.e. participant and non-participant observation. In fact, the combination of these two methods of data collection enabled us to obtain an objective view of the state of matters and to achieve a more complete picture of the phenomena under investigation (see section 4.1.2.), that is, the evaluation of the children's behavior during the lesson and their reaction to the puppet, as well as its influence on the chosen aspects of lessons.

The teacher-researcher engaged in a study as a participant observer, being, as pointed out by Pilch and Bauman (2001: 318), a fully engaged member of the observed situation. The non-participant observation was conducted by dr Danuta Wiśniewska – a lecturer from the Institute of Applied Linguistics (Adam Mickiewicz University). The non-participant observer, in order to be as unobtrusive as possible, sat at the back of the classroom and tried to remain aloof from the observed groups.

4.2.1.5. Research tools

Data obtained from the participant observation were recorded by the teacher-researcher in the form of a teacher's diary, avoiding any predetermined categories which would systematize the observation (see Pilch and Bauman 2001: 321). The teacher-researcher had a roughly delineated problem and attempted to keep the record as detailed as possible, being aware of the fact that some events may come as unimportant and trivial in the course of the observation, but their significance may be discovered later, that is in the stage of data analysis.

The non-participant observer's task was to evaluate the children's behavior according to the following four categories: reaction to an activity, discipline, the need to communicate in English and involvement. Each stage of the lesson was examined according to the already mentioned categories using a five degrees' scale designed by Likert (1932), where 1 designated very poor, 2 – poor, 3 – rather positive, 4 – positive, and 5 – very positive. Moreover, the scale was used to evaluate general aspects of the lesson, such as the relation between the teacher-researcher and the children, the relation between the puppet and the children, and a group's general proficiency in English. Data obtained from the non-participant observation were recorded by the use of the observation sheet designed by the author of the study (see Appendix A and B).

4.2.1.6. Time allocation

The study extended over a period from October 25th, 2006 to May 21st, 2007. The puppet was present in PG1 and PG2 from the beginning of the study, that is from October 25th, 2006. At that time CG was taught EFL without the puppet. Its first appearance at the lesson

with CG took place on February 26th, 2007. Each group attended two half an hour lessons a week. Thus, the number of lessons where the puppet was not used in CG amounts to 27.

The non-participant observation was conducted twice, the first time on December 13th, 2006, when the puppet was present only in PG1 and PG2, and the second – on March 21st, 2007, after the puppet had been introduced in CGP, and was, thus, being used in all the investigated groups (see Table 4).

Table 4. Time allocation of the background study

Stage		**PG1**	**PG2**	**CG/CGP**
Stage 1 (25.10.06–21.02.07)				
1.	Puppet	**P**	**P**	**LP**
2.	Participant observation	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]
3.	Non-participant obs. (13.12.)	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]
Stage 2 (26.02.07–21.05.07)				
1.	Puppet	**P**	**P**	**P**
2.	Participant observation	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]
3.	Non-participant obs. (21.03.)	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]

P – the use of the puppet;

LP – the lack of the puppet;

[redacted] - continuous observation;

[redacted] - one-time observation;

4.2.1.7. Methods of data analysis

The investigation of research problems enumerated in section 4.2.1.1. required the application of both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection. Therefore, the analysis and interpretation of the data had a two-fold character. The qualitative line of investigation concern the data obtained through participant observation, which will be presented in the form of observational diaries separate for PG1, PG2 and CG/CGP, respectively, attempting

to capture the teacher-researcher's impressions from the lessons conducted with each group.

In quantitative research, concerning the non-participant observation, the data came out in numerical form and involved the use of statistics. The obtained results were aggregated in tabular forms by the use of Microsoft Office Excel 2003, on the basis of which specific statistical measures were calculated in order to make the research more manageable and turn the data into comprehensive outcomes. In order to carry out data analysis, the author of the study has calculated the arithmetic mean of all the marks provided by the non-participant observer for every stage of the lesson, separately for each of the categories enumerated in section 4.2.1.5. Attempting to determine the marks' dispersion, we have applied one of its measures, namely standard deviation (SD), which has been calculated using the following formula[1]:

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n}}$$

where:
x_i – mark given for each stage of the lesson;

$\bar{x}$ – mean of all the marks provided for each stage of the lesson;

n – the number of lesson stages

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$$

Standard deviation indicates the average deviation of all the marks from the mean value. In order to evaluate the strength of that deviation, we have calculated a variability ratio (VR), indicating a relative signification of standard deviation by comparison with mean value.

$$VR = \frac{SD}{\bar{x}} * 100\%$$

where:

[1] All the formulas used in this section have been adapted from Ignatczyk and Chromińska (1999)

SD – the standard deviation;

$\bar{x}$ – the mean of all the marks provided for each stage of the lesson;

Since the two non-participant observations took place on relatively remote dates, we have also calculated nominal (quantitative) and relative (percentage) differences between mean values of marks for all chosen categories provided on both observations so as to discern the changes which occurred in the period between them.

4.2.2. The study proper: The analysis of educational discourse in EFL kindergarten context

The study proper of the present dissertation concerns the analysis of educational discourse in the EFL kindergarten classroom. It has been designed to investigate different aspects of classroom discourse occurring in the following interactional configurations: the teacher-learners and the teacher-puppet-learners. To this end, the study was aimed at exploring the following process variables: turn-taking mechanism, learning and communication strategies applied by the learners and the phenomenon of assistance provided by the teacher and the learners. Before embarking on the presentation of findings, it is essential to offer some comments on the research questions, participants and time allocation, research procedures and tools, data coding criteria and methods of data analysis.

4.2.2.1. Research questions

The research project reported on in this dissertation focuses on the way the puppet, acting as a teacher's assistant and a native speaker of English, exerts influence on the verbal interaction prevailing in an EFL kindergarten context. It attempts to illustrate various facets of classroom discourse occurring both in the presence of the puppet as well as its absence. Specifically, it explores the interactional processes which are conducive to language development. The study will address the following research questions:

1. What are the differences between teacher-learners and teacher-puppet-learners discourse?

2. What are the specific discourse features/aspects that appear in the two above-mentioned interactional configurations?

3. Is there any special set of discourse strategies that children develop (in the presence of the puppet) in order to succeed in classroom L2 discourse?

4. Can one modify learners' verbal behavior in the EFL classroom through the implementation of the puppet?

5. What kind of discourse strategies/interactional processes occur in the presence of the puppet that might be conducive to L2 development?

6. How do learners develop their interactive skills in L2?

Moreover, since our considerations are inextricably linked to teaching EFL to young learners, an issue capturing increased attention on the Polish preschool scene, the answers to the above research questions will hopefully allow us for the reflection on enhancing the efficiency of foreign language instruction at this level and for gaining a better understanding of what that instruction should look like, as well.

4.2.2.2. Participants and time allocation

Data for the study proper have been supplied by the same subjects presented in the background study and the study itself extended over the same time period (see section 4.2.1.2. and 4.2.1.6.). Since the teacher-researcher was familiar with each group participating in the study, she was able to identify, in the majority of cases, all the learners on the basis of audio recordings, as a result of which they were assigned the following coding formulas throughout the transcriptions used in this dissertation: S1, S2, S3, …., etc. However, in cases when it was impossible to discern individual learners, they were coded as Sx.

4.2.2.3. Research procedures and tools

The teacher-researcher made audio recordings of all regularly scheduled lessons in the period throughout which the study was conducted. The learners were informed at the begin-

ning of the school year about the recording procedure, which was pursued with their parents' consent.

The database used for the analysis of classroom discourse includes 44 half-an-hour lessons, amounting to 1303 minutes. The lessons have been transcribed with the help of VoiceWalker – a transcription discourse utility.

The first stage of the study, referred to as Study 1, entailed the analysis of transcriptions of 11 succeeding lessons conducted with the puppet's groups (PG1 and PG2) and the control group (CG) in the period from October 25th 2006 to November 29th 2006, which constituted baseline data for the study. In this stage, the puppet was present only in PG1 and PG2. Therefore, I attempted to compare discourse occurring under two sets of circumstances, i.e. in the presence of the puppet (in the puppet's groups) and its lack (in the control group). The second stage of the study, referred to as Study 2, involved the analysis of lesson transcripts obtained only from CG. While the lessons with CG (without the puppet) served as a basis for comparison with the puppet's groups in Study 1, it is now, in Study 2, that they constitute the so called 'tertium comparationis' for the lessons conducted in CG with the puppet being used, later referred to as CGP. As such, the control group from Study 1 (when the puppet was not being used) constituted an experimental group in Study 2 (when the puppet was being implemented). We will attempt to compare the 11 lesson transcripts from Study 1 with 11 transcriptions of lessons from Study 2, beginning from February 26th 2007 (the introduction of the puppet in CG) and finishing on April 2nd 2007. Figure 4 provided below presents the conceptualization of the study proper.

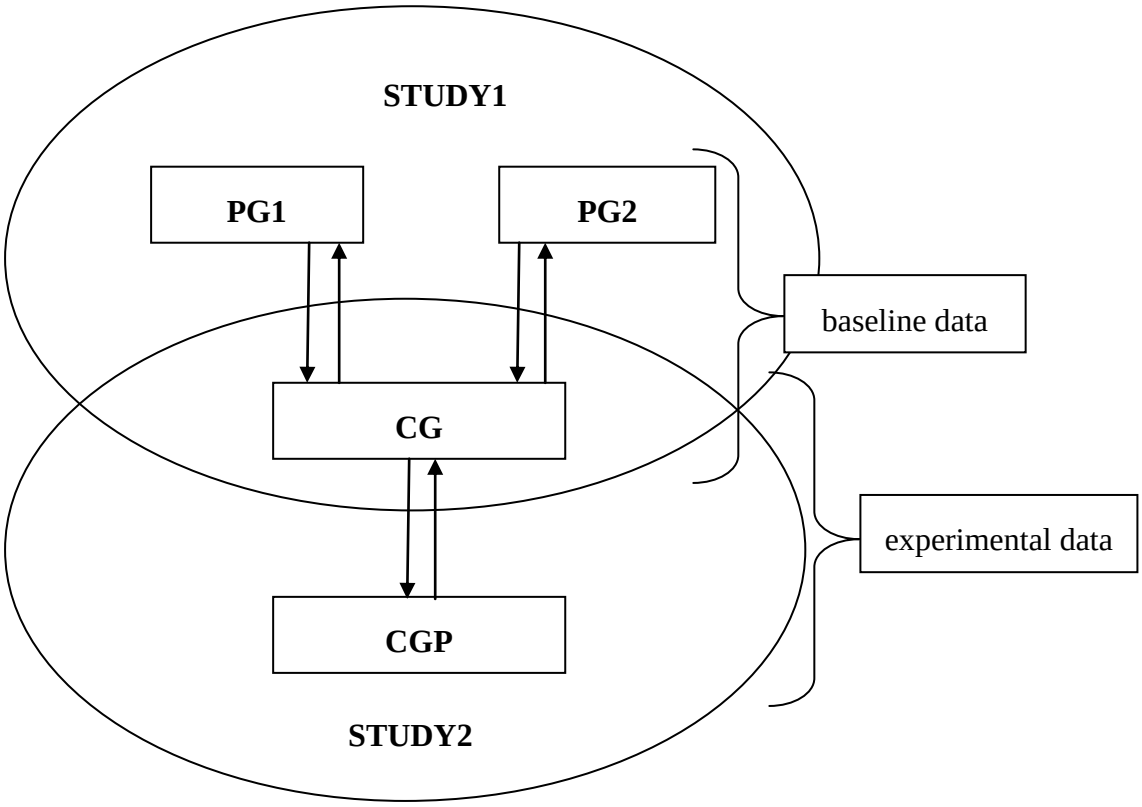


Figure 4. Conceptualization of the study proper

4.2.2.4. Data coding

The stretches of interaction in our data required appropriate coding in order to organize them into a manageable, easily understandable, and analyzable base of information. In the belief that lesson transcripts will provide us with rich and extensive second language discourse data in the EFL kindergarten classroom, we have used the following transcription conventions (see Table 5):

Table 5. Transcription conventions

Symbol	Description
T	the teacher-researcher;
P	the puppet;
Sn	individual students (marked as S1, S2, S3, …., etc.);
C	whole class speaking in chorus;
[	overlapping utterances;
=	linked or continued utterances with no perceptible gap (latched utterances);
(( ))	analyst's description of something in the transcript, or description of non-verbal action;
(xxx)	incomprehensible speech/sounds;
(h)	audible outbreath, more letters indicate longer outbreath;
(.h)	audible inbreath, more letters indicate longer inbreath;
(y)	hesitation fillers, more letters indicate longer hesitation;
…	indicate a pause; if a pause exceeds one second, its approximate length in seconds is provided in single brackets, e.g. … (3);
x-	a hyphen after an initial sound indicates an abrupt cut-off, e.g. this-;
(…)	some parts have been omitted because of their irrelevance for the study;

The reliability of the coding has been checked by measures of inter-rater reliability, which can be defined as correlations between the categorization of different coders. The inter-rater reliability was calculated by another coder checking 10% of the coded transcriptions and applying the following formula: number of agreements divided by number of agreements plus disagreements (see Mackey and Gass 2005: 243). The result was 93,5% percent agreement, which signifies that coders were using much the same interpretative procedures.

4.2.2.5. Methods of data analysis

Two lines of inquiry have been pursued in the analysis of the transcribed data, i.e. the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches. We hope that due to such a combination, a fuller picture is going to emerge of classroom discourse in the EFL kindergarten context. The quantitative analysis has been conducted by means of statistics. Having calculated the incidence of occurrence of the chosen aspects of discourse in each of the 11 transcribed lessons and within each stage of the study, separate for the puppet's groups (PG1 and PG2), and CG and CGP, the author of the present dissertation aggregated the results in tabular forms by the use of Microsoft Office Excel 2003. The qualitative analysis, on the other hand, examined data samples with the aim of presenting relevant examples of classroom discourse and of illustrating general tendencies. The three groups participating in the study have been compared with regard to turn-taking mechanism, the application of learning and communication strategies and the phenomenon of assistance, known also as scaffolding.

In order to investigate learners' initiative and turn-taking behavior, we have analyzed self-initiated turns differentiating between turns taken in Polish (L1) and in English (L2). Trying to examine the learners' degree of attentiveness to classroom talk, we have distinguished three main categories of utterances. Firstly, we have searched for another-learner initiated turns (taken in response to utterances produced by peers), distinguishing their two variants, i.e. turns taken in L1 and in L2. Secondly, we have identified overlapping utterances with the division into utterances produced in L1 and in L2, and subdividing each of these two categories into utterances overlapping either with the teacher's/puppet's (T/P) or another learner's turn (L). Thirdly, we have investigated latched utterances, again, as in the case of overlapping utterances, differentiating between utterances produced in L1 and in L2, further subdividing each of these categories into latched utterances produced right after the teacher's/puppet's (T/P) or another learner's turn (L).

Learning strategies have been identified on the basis of the taxonomy of second language learning strategies proposed by Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985) (see section 3.5.2.). For the purpose of our study, we have searched for the following learning strategies: repetition, memorization, formulaic expressions, verbal attention getter differentiating between those produced in L1 or L2, talk to self differentiating between talk in L1 and in L2, anticipatory answer, monitoring, and request for clarification with the division into requests addressed to the teacher (T) or to the learner (L). Furthermore, on the basis of our observations conducted for the purpose of the background study, we were able to identify another learning strategy occurring during the lessons, i.e. translation into L1 of the teacher's or puppet's utterances produced in L2. Apart from the above mentioned categories, we have also looked for the two following communication strategies: coinage and language switch.

We have also examined the way the teacher supported the learners and the way the learners supported one another in building discourse in the target language, a phenomenon known as assistance or scaffolding. Our attempt was to determine the extent to which the learners relied upon one another and the teacher for assistance, i.e. to analyze the strategies they used to obtain assistance either from peers or the teacher, as well as to provide assistance for one another. The analysis of assistance had a twofold character. Firstly, we have investigated strategies used for obtaining assistance, differentiating between indirect requests for assistance, i.e. hesitation noises, interjections, and pauses (differentiating between their number of occurrence and sum in seconds), and direct requests for assistance, i.e. appeal for assistance. Secondly, we analyzed the strategies used for providing assis-

tance, distinguishing four broad categories, i.e. teacher's prompting, learners' prompting, teacher's repair and learner's repair.

In order to illustrate the line of quantitative analysis, it is necessary to present the following procedures. Firstly, the number of occurrence of each discourse feature has been calculated within each of the 11 transcribed lessons, and within each stage of the study, separate for PG1, PG2, CG and CGP. It will be presented in tabular forms in the subsequent chapter. We have assumed in advance that each of the analyzed discourse features constitutes a random variable, which can be defined as x_i, where i=1 …. 35 (23 discourse features came under scrutiny; however, some of them have been examined in terms of their variants, which altogether amounts to 35 discourse features). As such, the results obtained on the basis of the 11 transcribed lessons conducted with PG1, PG2, CG and CGP can be treated as a statistical sample amounting to n=11, which can be representative of a larger population.

Secondly, for every discourse feature, i.e. a random variable x_i, we have calculated the mean value of occurrence (measure of position) by using the following formula:

$$\overline{x_i} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{11} x_j}{11}$$

as well as the value of standard deviation (measure of variation):

$$S_i = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{11} (\quad - x_j)^2}{n-1}}$$

The mean value calculated on the basis of the statistical sample can be treated as the estimator of the so called true or expected value of a particular discourse feature occurring in the population marked as μ, where:

$$\bar{x} \approx \mu$$

Similarly, the obtained value of a standard deviation can be treated as the estimator of the standard deviation occurring in the population marked as б, where:

$$S \approx \sigma$$

Thirdly, we have calculated the statistical significance of differences between mean values calculated for every discourse feature, separate for each group. In order to prove the significant influence of the puppet's presence during the lessons on particular discourse

features used by learners, we have applied the statistical measure, known as a t-test. In such a way, we have compared mean values of discourse features' occurrence between PG1 and CG, PG2 and CG, and PG1 and PG2 in the first stage of the study (Study 1), and for CG and CGP obtained in the second stage (Study 2). The t-test is based on the formulation of a statistical hypothesis, which constitutes an assumption concerning the general population, made on the basis of the results obtained from a statistical sample. In order to verify the statistical hypothesis, it is essential to follow certain procedures.

Firstly, we need to propose a null and an alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis is marked as H_0 and assumes that no significant differences can be found between mean values of particular discourse features' occurrence in the puppet's groups (PG1, PG2) and CG in Study 1, and in CG and CGP in Study 2, which can be illustrated by the following formula:

$$H_0: \mu_1=\mu_2$$

The alternative hypothesis, marked as H_1, is formulated simultaneously and postulates that mean values of particular discourse features' occurrence are significantly different in the puppet's groups (PG1, PG2) and CG in Study 1, and in CG and CGP in Study 2, which indicates that the use of the puppet exerts a crucial influence on the application of particular discourse features by the subjects of the study. We may expect that in some cases there will be an increase in the occurrence of particular discourse features, whereas in the others – a decrease. Therefore, the alternative hypothesis H_1 can be advanced in one of the following three ways:

$$H_1: \mu_1\neq\mu_2$$
$$H_1: \mu_1<\mu_2$$
$$H_1: \mu_1>\mu_2$$

Secondly, in each stage of our study we compare two populations (the one taught with the puppet and the other taught without it), whose mean values and standard deviation are estimated on the basis of the statistical sample n=11; in order to calculate the statistical significance of the mean values, we intend to apply the following formula:

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2(n_1-1)+s_2^2(n_2-1)}{n_1+n_2-2}\left(\frac{1}{n_1}+\frac{1}{n_2}\right)}}$$

where:

$\bar{x}_1$ – mean value of a subsequent (from 1 to 35) discourse feature in CG;
$\bar{x}_2$ – mean value of a subsequent discourse feature in PG1 and PG2 in Study 1, and in CGP in Study 2;

$n_1=n_2=11$ – the number of statistical sample;
s_1; s_2 – the value of standard deviation obtained from statistical sample.

The value of the obtained parameter t has been compared with the region of acceptance (belonging to H_0) and with the region of rejection (belonging to H_1) (see Figure 5).

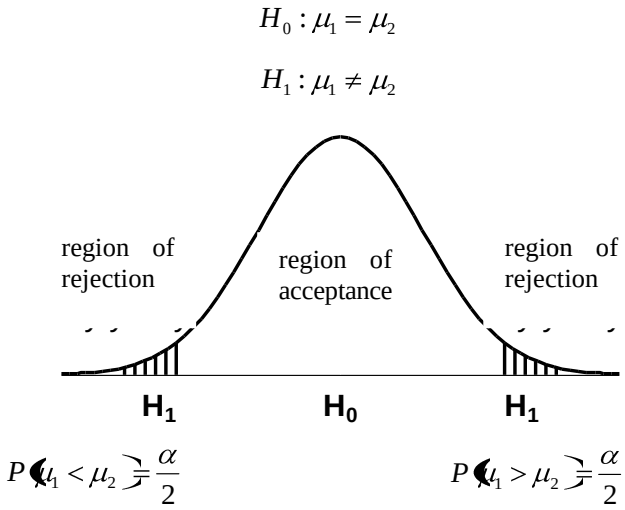


Figure 5. The illustration of a two-sided test

where:

μ_1 – mean value of a particular discourse feature occurring in CG

μ_2 – mean value of a particular discourse feature occurring in PG1 or PG2 in Study 1, and in CGP in Study 2.

Thirdly, the previously described procedures necessitated the assumption of the statistical significance level, which in our case amounts to 0,05 (α=0,05).

Finally, the last step in our procedure concerning the statistical significance of mean values refers to the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis. From the table of t-distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom, one can read a critical value of t_α such that $P(|t| \geq t_\alpha) = \alpha$. For α = 0,05, we obtain $t_\alpha = 2{,}228$, a value which determines the two-sided region of rejection $Q = \{t: |t| \geq t_\alpha\}$. The application of the test with the region of rejection constructed in such a way is based on the calculation of the parameter t from a given statistical sample and the verification whether the obtained parameter t is located in the region Q or not. If the value t, obtained from the sample, belongs to Q, i.e. obeys inequality $|t| \geq t_\alpha$,

then we reject the null hypothesis H_0 in favor of H_1. If however, $|t| < t_\alpha$ which means that the obtained value t does not belong to Q, then we have no grounds for the rejection of the null hypothesis on significance level $\alpha = 0{,}05$.

The fourth step in our quantitative procedure refers to interval estimation. For those discourse features, whose mean values of occurrence between PG1 and CG, and PG2 and CG in Study 1, and between CG and CGP in Study 2 have been shown to be statistically different, we have employed an additional measure, i.e. partition estimation of mean value (see Figure 6):

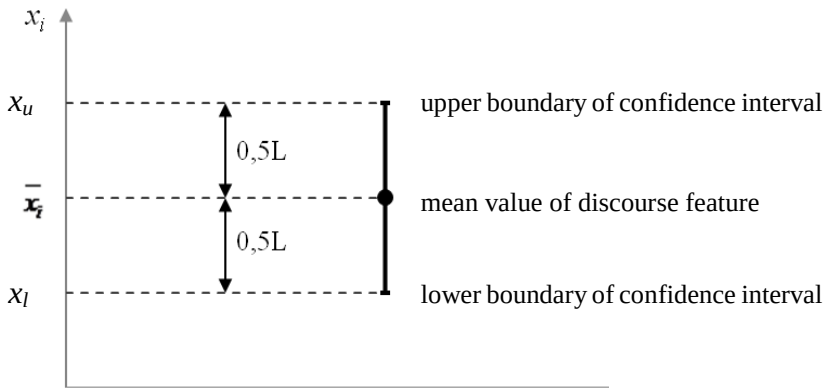


Figure 6. Graphic illustration of mean value's partition estimation

In order to demarcate the half-width of the confidence interval, we have applied the following formula:

$$\tfrac{1}{2} L_{1-\alpha} = t_{1-\alpha, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

which is used when the value of a standard deviation in population б is not known and is estimated on the basis of the parameter S calculated for the statistical sample. In our study, the parameter t amounts to $t_{0,95;10}=2{,}228$, on the condition that the statistical level amounts to $\alpha = 0{,}05$ and the number of degrees of freedom equals $\nu = n-1 = 11-1 = 10$. As such, the lower boundary of the interval, where the expected true value of the analyzed discourse features is located with 95% probability, amounts to:

$$x_l = \bar{x} - \tfrac{1}{2} L_{0,95}$$

whereas the upper boundary of the interval is expressed by the following formula:

$$x_u = \bar{x} + \tfrac{1}{2} L_{0,95}$$

The last step of our quantitative analysis is based on the calculation of mean values' relative changes for those discourse features, whose mean values of occurrence have been proven to be different in terms of statistical significance, in PG1 and CG, and in PG2 and CG in Study 1, and in CG and CGP in Study 2. The relative changes have been calculated using the following formula in Study 1:

$$\Delta S1 = \frac{\bar{x}_{PG(1-2)} - \bar{x}_{CG}}{\bar{x}_{CG}} \cdot 100\%$$

and in Study 2:

$$\Delta S2 = \frac{\bar{x}_{CGP} - \bar{x}_{CG}}{\bar{x}_{CG}} \cdot 100\%$$

The obtained values were further applied in the presentation and analysis of the results, which are going to be presented in the next chapter[2].

[2] The statistical calculation has been done by dr Michał Libera – an adjunct from Poznan Univeristy of Technology;

Chapter 5: Results' presentation and discussion

5.0. Introduction

This chapter is going to present the results of the study. It begins with the report on the outcomes of the background study, differentiating between the results of the participant and non-participant observations, followed by discussion and interpretation of the results. Next, we proceed to the results of the study proper, starting from the quantitative analysis, where we show the results of the t-test as well as confidence intervals of discourse features whose mean values of occurrence were proven, by the use of the t-test, to be different in terms of statistical significance in the groups compared. Finally, we present the results of the qualitative analysis in an attempt to provide relevant examples of the discourse features selected in the quantitative analysis. The chapter ends with the discussion and interpretation of the data obtained in the study proper.

5.1. The results of the background study

This part of the results' presentation will deal with the outcomes of the background study (see section 4.2.1.) devoted to investigating the impact of the puppet as a teacher's assistant in teaching EFL to kindergarten children. First, we will show the record from the participant observation written separately for each group on the basis of the teacher's diary. The subsequent section will display the results of the non-participant observation.

5.1.1. The results of the participant observation

5.1.1.1. The results obtained in PG1

The group reacted to the puppet, Teddy, enthusiastically and from the very beginning accepted him as their teacher of English. The children were curious about his age, family, place of living and his way of spending free time. When it happened that a lesson began without Teddy, the children insisted on his reappearance. They were keen on being called by the English version of their names both by me (the teacher-researcher) and Teddy. They even rebelled against being called in Polish in cases when I forgot about their request. One boy went even further to correct me by saying:

S6: *Nie Filip, tylko Philip.*

Being aware of Teddy's home country, the children attempted to ask as many questions as possible about England and the customs prevailing there. When some problems with misbehavior occurred, Teddy's mild reproach: 'You are naughty' and his expression of disappointment sufficed to call the children to order. It seemed that the children quickly became motivated and classroom order was restored. It also happened that the child who was actually obedient in such cases stood up and took the blame for the misbehavior of other children on his shoulders by saying:

S8: *I'm sorry, Teddy.*

and prompting the disruptive children to apologize to Teddy.

The children usually approached me with an appeal for assistance (*A jak się mówi po angielsku …*?) in the cases when they wanted to say something to Teddy in English. Having received my help, they were able to utter a given phrase. Translation of Teddy's utterances by the children into Polish was the most frequently used strategy in the lesson. It mainly referred to the classroom language, e.g. giving instructions, reprimands, and feedback. Upon saying something appropriately in English, the children provided positive feedback for one another, for example:

S2: *Very good, Justin, very good!*

While being involved in communicative games, the children prompted one another in order to give an answer to Teddy's question. The children also started to produce structures illustrating the development of the interlanguage, for example:

S8:* *I'm fine no*[3]. (equals 'I'm not fine.')

S4: * *Yes, I no*. (equals 'No, I don't.')

There were also occasional spontaneous utterances in English, such as:

S9: * *Teddy, Michael sleep*. (a child's attempt to draw Teddy's attention to the fact that Michael was sleeping)

S9: * *Suzi, I like horses*. (informing Teddy that Suzi likes horses)

S9: *What happened?* (the question addressed to Teddy, who had said: 'I'm not fine.')

as well as instances of code-switching, for example:

S6: * *Ja chcę eat.* (equals 'I want to eat.')

S9: * *My mother ma na imię też Ania*. (equals 'My mother's name is also Ania.')

S9: * *Gorąco tutaj. Teddy hot*. (equals 'Teddy, it's hot in here.')

S6: * *I'm sad grandpa, że dziadek Weroniki zmarł.* (equals 'It's sad that Weronika's grandpa died.')

The children maintained that Teddy was the best teacher of English and, on his leave for England (which lasted from April 4th to May 7th), they missed him very much and insisted on his quick reappearance. In the time of his absence, I faced some problems with discipline since three boys (S2, S4 and S6) assumed rather rebellious attitudes, which eventually escalated in the whole group rioting, demanding the return of Teddy. The situation was repeated several times, and after Teddy had come back from England, the three boys expressed their liking for Teddy by saying *I love you Teddy*. Moreover, they also called to order the remaining children by exclaiming: *Przestańcie, bo Teddy jest smutny* (equals 'Stop doing that! Can't you see that Teddy is sad!?').

5.1.1.2. The results obtained in PG2

Likewise in PG1, this group reacted to Teddy equally enthusiastically. However, the children from PG2 seemed to be more disciplined, in fact they did not pose any educational problems. If any discipline problem occurred, the children called one another to order by saying: *He/she is naughty*. Moreover, the group represented a higher linguistic level.

[3] "*" signifies a grammatically incorrect sentence

The children expressed their sympathy for Teddy in the form of gifts and home-made pictures. They, likewise in PG1, showed keen interest in England and its culture as well as in the language spoken there. One boy (S3) admitted to browsing through a dictionary every evening in order to get to know English better. He asked me to inform Teddy about it. For the next lesson, he brought the dictionary, which confirmed his interest in the language. The dictionary aroused interest among the other children. Similarly to PG1, the children used the strategy of appeal for assistance (*A jak się mówi po angielsku …?*) when wanting to say something to Teddy in English. There were also occasional spontaneous utterances in English, for example:

S1: *Suzi is sick.*

At the beginning of the study the already mentioned boy (S3) showed great enthusiasm for English classes as well as for Teddy. It is worth mentioning that that boy caused many discipline problems in the other classes the children attended in the kindergarten, as reported by their teacher. On the contrary, in English lessons he was fascinated by the foreign language to the extent that in the very first month of instruction he assumed not only the role of the translator of what Teddy or I said, but also that of the teacher. It all began when he took over the initiative during one of the communicative games, the rules of which he suddenly started to explain providing us with relevant examples in English. He led the activity by asking other children questions in English and calling them to order the way I used to, by exclaiming: *Children!*. He became so excited about his role to the extent that once his turn came, he spoke with himself by asking questions and providing appropriate answers. His enthusiasm lasted for quite a long time, yet weakened by the end of the study. He probably became accustomed to the presence of the puppet.

The above effect of habituation has not been observed among the other children, whose enthusiasm remained at a high level. Since February there were occasions when the children did not want to finish their English classes. Instead of saying the farewell poem, they began reciting the greeting one, which signified their willingness to restart the lesson. When Teddy left for England (from April 4th to May 7th), the children still felt the need to communicate in English, which evinced itself in spontaneous utterances, for example:

S3: * *Do you like it a poem?*

or in the use of the strategy of appeal for assistance: *A jak się mówi po angielsku …?*.

5.1.1.3. The results of obtained in CG/CGP

There was a big discrepancy in terms of discipline between classes with the children from PG1 and PG2, and the ones from CG. The latter seemed to have a shorter attention span and became easily distracted and even bored by the newly introduced activities. The lack of the need to communicate in English among the majority of the children became visible in the early communicative games.

The children behaved in a very disruptive and noisy way. The greatest discipline problems were posed by one boy (S6), who was always easily distracted by various objects and toys present in the classroom. He could not stand sitting in the circle formed by the children and constantly kept moving away from the group and walking around the classroom. That had a distracting effect on the other learners. He did not show any interest in a foreign language and was even reluctant to say anything in English. The learners, similarly to PG1 and PG2, called one another to order by exclaiming: *Be quiet!* or *Circle!*, but that was of little value. I had the impression that they had a negative attitude towards English as a foreign language, which was manifested in the mimicry when providing answers to my questions. Some plays, e.g. dead call, favored in PG1 and PG2, were disliked in this group. One could evaluate the children's attitude towards English classes as indifferent or in some cases even as negative.

When the puppet was introduced after four months of instruction, the children, similarly to the learners in PG1 and PG2, became very curious about Teddy's person. They immediately accepted him as their teacher and I could easily notice their eagerness to communicate with him in English. At subsequent lessons, the children were more concentrated and did not get distracted so easily. I also spotted that they used English more frequently and showed greater enthusiasm as far as the assigned tasks and games. When wanting to say something in English, the children started to use the strategy of appeal for assistance: *A jak się mówi po angielsku …?*. There were also spontaneous utterances and questions asked in English, for example:

S6: *I like Teddy*. (uttered in terms of apology for the group's disruptive behavior)
S6: *Do you like the story?*
S9: *Teddy, are you sad?*
S9: *I'm happy!* (uttered in reaction to a new play)

Two girls (S4 and S9) were most enthusiastically disposed towards Teddy. They frequently addressed him in English, and showed great initiative and creativity with regard to the preparation of gifts for him. These took the form of hand-made cards, clothes and a song about Teddy.

From the beginning of Teddy's presence, the children started to show curiosity about England and its culture. This especially applied to the above mentioned boy (S6), whose conduct and attitude towards English classes, after the introduction of the puppet, differed significantly from that which he demonstrated before its appearance. When Teddy was present, he became very much involved and more concentrated, used English spontaneously by initiating questions addressed to the whole group and prompting other learners.

After a two-month-exposure to the puppet (which approximates seventeen classes), its motivating impact began to lessen, which probably signified that it ceased to exert an influence on the children. By this point, it seemed to me that they did not react to the puppet at all. There reappeared the forms of behavior that occurred at the time when the puppet was not used, e.g. the mimicry of the teacher, noisy and disruptive behavior. What is more, the children's attention span decreased. Three boys (S1, S7, and S8) behaved in such an inappropriate way that they made one girl (S9) retreat into herself. She refused to take part in the activities and for the majority of time sat in the corner, and kept repeating *I'm sad*. In the first stage of the study when CG was taught EFL without the puppet, she was rather bored during the lesson and livened up only when the puppet was introduced to the group. In fact, as I mentioned above, her attitude to Teddy and English classes was the most enthusiastic among the children from CGP. Her retreat was most likely caused by the unruly behavior of the three boys.

5.1.2. The results of non-participant observation

5.1.2.1. Study 1: The results of non-participant observation no 1

The results of non-participant observation conducted on December 13th, 2006 are presented in Table 6 and 7. In PG1, the mean value of the marks provided for each stage of the lesson by the non-participant observer while evaluating children's reaction to an activity amounted to 4,4. Discipline received 4,5 of the mean value, the need to communicate in English –5,0,

whereas the children's involvement in a given activity amounted to 4,4 (see Table 6). As far as the variability ratio is concerned, it is assumed that when its value does not exceed 20%, there is no significant diversity of the marks from the mean value. In this case, the value of the variability ratio for each of the evaluated categories approximated 11%, which signifies that there was not any marked diversity from the mean value.

PG2 received higher mean values. The mean value of the marks evaluating the group's reaction to an activity amounted to 4,9, whereas the remaining categories, i.e. discipline, the need to communicate in English and children's involvement, were rated at the same level and obtained the mean value amounting to 5,0. The value of standard deviation was 0 since the provided marks were equal in every lesson's stage and for all of the investigated categories.

CG's performance was assessed as the weakest. The mean value of the marks provided by the non-participant observer evaluating the children's reaction to an activity totaled 2,7. The need to communicate in English received the same value, whereas the mean value for discipline constituted 1,9 and for children's involvement –2,4. By looking at the values of variability ratio for each category, one can easily discern that there was a significant diversity of the marks from the mean value. In this case, the values of the variability ratio were high and exceeded 20%.

As for the general aspects of the lesson (see Table 7), the relation between the teacher-researcher and the children from PG1 and PG2, as well as their relations with the puppet were evaluated as very positive (5). The relation between the teacher-researcher and the children from CG was assessed as rather positive (3). Since the puppet was not used at this stage in CG, the aspect of the relation between the children and the puppet was not taken into consideration. As far as the group's general proficiency in English is concerned, the children from PG2 received the highest mark (5); those from PG1 –4, that is positive; and the children from the CG were evaluated to be at a poor level, obtaining a 2.

Table 6. Mean values, standard deviation and variability ratio obtained in Study 1 (background study)

Study 1	**PG1**				**PG2**				**CG**			
EVALUATED CATEGORIES	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to com-municate in English	Involvement	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to com-municate in English	Involvement	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to com-municate in English	Involvement
Mean value	4,4	4,5	5,0	4,4	4,9	5,0	5,0	5,0	2,7	1,9	2,7	2,4
Standard deviation	0,5	0,6	0,0	0,5	0,3	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,7	0,6	0,9	0,9
Variability ratio	11%	13%	0%	11%	7%	0%	0%	0%	26%	34%	35%	37%

Table 7. The evaluation of the lesson's general aspects in Study 1 (background study)

Study 1	**PG1**	**PG2**	**CG**
The relation between the teacher and children	5	5	3
The relation between the puppet and children	5	5	
Children's general proficiency in English	4	5	2

5.1.2.2. Study 2: The results of non-participant observation no 2

The results of the non-participant observation conducted on March 21st, 2007 are presented in Table 8 and 9. The mean value of the marks provided for the reaction to an activity amounted to 4,6 among the children from PG1, 4,9 for discipline, 4,0 for the need to communicate in English and 4,6 for the children's involvement. The values of the variability ratio did not exceed 20%, which implies that marks' diversity from the mean value was rather low (see Table 8).

The children from PG2's performance was evaluated as the best one of all the groups investigated. The mean value of the reaction to an activity, discipline and involvement amounted to 5,0, whereas the need to communicate in English totaled 4,0. The value of the variability ratio was 0 since the provided marks were equal in every stage of the lesson.

After the introduction of the puppet to CGP, the mean value of the marks provided for the reaction to an activity amounted to 4,3; 3,7 for discipline, 4,0 for the need to communicate in English and 4,1 for involvement. There was not any significant marks' diversity from the mean value since the values of the variability ratio for each of the categories did not exceed 20%.

The marks provided for the general aspects of the lesson remained the same in Study 2 as in Study 1 for PG1 and PG2 (see Table 9). However, they differed significantly in CGP. The relations between the teacher-researcher and the children, and between the puppet and the children were evaluated as very positive, receiving a 5. The group's general proficiency level in English also received a higher mark in comparison with the previous non-participant observation and was evaluated as positive (4).

Table 8. Mean values, standard deviation and variability ratio obtained in Study 2 (background study)

Study 2	**PG1**				**PG2**				**CGP**			
EVALUATED CATEGORIES	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to communicate in English	Involvement	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to communicate in English	Involvement	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to communicate in English	Involvement
Mean value	4,6	4,9	4,0	4,6	5,0	5,0	4,0	5,0	4,3	3,7	4,0	4,1
Standard deviation	0,5	0,3	0,8	0,6	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,5	0,4	0,0	0,8
Variability ratio	10%	7%	20%	13%	0%	0%	0%	0%	12%	12%	0%	20%

Table 9. The evaluation of the lesson's general aspects in Study 2 (background study)

Study 2	**PG1**	**PG2**	**CGP**
The relation between the teacher and children	5	5	5
The relation between the puppet and children	5	5	5
Children's general proficiency in English	4	5	4

5.1.2.3. The comparison of the results from Study 1 and Study 2

The differences between the marks provided at the first and second non-participant observations (see Table 10) were insignificant in PG1 in terms of the following categories: the reaction to an activity, discipline and children's involvement. The marks' mean value improved at 4%, 8% and 3%, respectively. However, likewise in PG2, the need to communicate in English received one mark lower in comparison with the first non-participant observation. The mean values of the marks provided for discipline and children's involvement did not alter in PG2. The only change was in the improvement of the reaction to an activity at 3%.

As a result of the puppet's introduction in CGP, there were marked differences in mean values for all the investigated categories. The mean value of the marks provided for the reaction to an activity improved by 36%, that of discipline – by 41%, that of the need to communicate in English – by 27% and that of children's involvement – by 38%.

Table 10. The comparison of the results from Study 1 and Study 2 (background study)

	PG1				**PG2**				**CG/CGP**			
EVALUATED CATEGORIES	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to communicate in English	Involvement	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to communicate in English	Involvement	The reaction to an activity	Discipline	The need to communicate in English	Involvement
Nominal difference	0,20	0,38	–1,00	0,13	0,14	0,00	–1,00	0,00	1,60	1,83	1,33	1,70
Relative difference	4%	8%	–20%	3%	3%	0%	–20%	0%	36%	41%	27%	38%

5.1.3. Results' discussion

Analyzing the data obtained on the basis of the participant and non-participant observations discussed in the foregoing sections, one can easily notice considerable differences between puppet's groups (PG1 and PG2) and CG in the first stage of the study (Study 1), when the puppet was only used in PG1 and PG2. The differences concern not only the children's general proficiency in English, but also their reaction to activities, discipline, their need to communicate in English and involvement. While the puppet's groups received mean values above 4,0 (in the case of PG2 –5,0), CG performed poorly in terms of all the evaluated categories. Discipline constituted the category which received the lowest mean value in the case of CG.

The results obtained in Study 2, that is on the basis of the non-participant observation no 2 conducted in the presence of the puppet in all investigated groups, reveal a noticeable improvement in the reaction to an activity, discipline, the need to communicate in English and involvement of the children from CGP. The mean values of the marks provided for these categories are positive and approximate 4,0. Discipline constitutes the category which improved most significantly. Its marks' mean value improved by 41%. Similar advancement can be observed in the children's general proficiency. PG1 and PG2 receive mean values similar to the ones from the non-participant observation no 1. The only category which was evaluated one mark lower is the need to communicate in English. One may assume that the puppet, after being used for a long time, does not exert such a considerable influence, which could be noticed in the children's enthusiastic attitude towards English classes in the early stage of the study. It seems that the puppet became less "prominent" to the children in that they appeared to get accustomed to its presence and did not feel such a strong need to communicate with it in English as they had felt at the beginning of the study. However, the remaining aspects, that is the relation between the teacher-researcher and children, and between the puppet and children, and children's general proficiency in English were evaluated on the same – high – level. Significant differences are noticeable in the marks received by CGP, where the relation between the teacher-researcher and the children improved and was evaluated as very positive. It hints at the fact that the use of the puppet enables the teacher to establish warmer relations with young learners. One may also observe a marked advancement in the general proficiency in English of the children from CGP. In the non-participant observation no 1 it was evaluated as poor, whereas in the non-participant observation no 2, it received a positive mark (4).

The puppet aroused interest in all the investigated groups, which certainly contributed to the increase in children's motivation and their positive attitude towards the English classes. It also kindled interest in England and its culture and consequently enabled the teacher to familiarize the children with the customs prevailing there. Furthermore, the children generated spontaneous utterances in English on the basis of the linguistic resources they had in their repertoire, a phenomenon which did not take place in CG while being taught without the puppet. After the introduction of the puppet, if the linguistic knowledge of children from CGP did not allow them to construct an utterance, they resorted to the strategy of an appeal for assistance: 'A jak się mówi po angielsku … ?'. It is worth noting that the strategy was present in PG1 and PG2 from the very beginning of the study.

5.2. The results of the study proper (a quantitative analysis)

This section is going to present the results of the quantitative analysis. We will begin with the presentation of the number of occurrence of discourse features in the 11 transcribed lessons separately for each group involved in the study. Then, we will show the results of the t-test as well as confidence intervals of the discourse features selected by the t-test itself.

5.2.1. Tabular presentation of the number of occurrences of discourse features

5.2.1.1. The number of occurrence of discourse features in Study 1

Tables 11, 12 and 13 show the number of occurrence of 35 discourse features in each of the 11 transcribed lessons, as well as the total number of occurrence of every discourse feature, the mean value of occurrence and the value of standard deviation which are necessary for the calculation of parameter t.

Table 11. Discourse features' number of occurrence in the statistical sample (PG1)

Discourse feature				***PG1*** Number of occurrence per lesson											Σ	$x_{śr}$	S	Number of variable
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11				
1	self-initiated turns	in L1		7	8	10	10	11	7	3	6	11	4	8	85	7,7	2,7	1
		in L2		28	21	21	22	33	18	23	18	20	16	28	248	22,5	5,1	2
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L1		1	1	4	0	5	2	1	0	1	2	3	20	1,8	1,6	3
		in L2		5	9	4	9	4	3	7	1	7	3	8	60	5,5	2,7	4
3	overlapping utterances	in L1	T/P	6	2	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	0	3	16	1,5	1,9	5
			L	1	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	2	6	0,5	0,8	6
		in L2	T/P	11	8	4	10	10	10	2	0	3	0	1	59	5,4	4,5	7
			L	1	2	1	5	2	0	3	1	2	1	3	21	1,9	1,4	8
4	latched utterances	in L1	T/P	7	0	9	2	5	0	0	0	0	0	3	26	2,4	3,3	9
			L	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0,3	0,5	10
		in L2	T/P	7	8	4	6	6	6	3	0	0	1	3	44	4,0	2,8	11
			L	5	3	1	2	0	2	1	1	0	0	2	17	1,5	1,5	12
5	repetition			1	6	4	8	11	4	5	1	3	2	5	50	4,5	3,0	13
6	memorization			1	0	1	0	3	2	3	0	0	0	2	12	1,1	1,2	14
7	formulaic expressions			0	2	0	0	2	2	5	3	0	0	1	15	1,4	1,6	15
8	verbal attention getter	in L1		10	8	8	5	8	6	2	0	1	1	3	52	4,7	3,5	16
		in L2		5	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	7	0,6	1,5	17
9	talk to self	in L1		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	18
		in L2		0	2	4	2	7	0	4	4	0	3	1	27	2,5	2,2	19
10	anticipatory answer			5	1	3	4	8	1	1	0	0	0	1	24	2,2	2,6	20
11	monitoring			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	21
12	request for clarification	T		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0,1	0,3	22
		L		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	23
13	coinage			0	0	4	3	1	1	2	4	2	7	8	32	2,9	2,7	24
14	language switch			2	2	2	1	1	0	1	0	2	1	2	14	1,3	0,8	25
15	translation			8	1	3	7	4	3	2	1	8	1	6	44	4,0	2,8	26
16	hesitation noises			8	21	3	1	1	2	8	9	10	3	6	72	6,5	5,8	27
17	interjections			1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4	0,4	0,7	28
18	pauses	No		9	33	5	8	5	8	6	12	9	3	13	111	10,1	8,2	29
		Sum (in seconds)		29	78	16	16	15	22	17	28	18	6	38	283	25,7	19,3	30
19	appeal for assistance			6	8	2	5	3	3	8	1	0	1	1	38	3,5	2,9	31
20	teacher's prompting			11	34	4	8	4	7	12	10	19	7	12	128	11,6	8,5	32
21	learner's prompting			7	4	4	7	6	2	9	7	7	3	9	65	5,9	2,3	33
22	teacher's repair			2	1	1	4	0	0	2	7	1	1	1	20	1,8	2,0	34
23	learner's repair			2	4	3	1	3	1	2	1	3	2	5	27	2,5	1,3	35

Table 12. Discourse features' number of occurrence in the statistical sample (PG2)

Discourse feature				***PG2*** Number of occurrence per lesson											Σ	$x_{śr}$	S	Number of variable
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11				
1	self-initiated turns	in L1		11	9	8	3	8	3	6	17	14	2	3	84	7,6	4,9	1
		in L2		32	21	26	29	17	22	18	31	50	16	20	282	25,6	9,8	2
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L1		6	1	5	1	4	0	0	3	1	0	1	22	2,0	2,1	3
		in L2		5	1	7	12	3	5	1	13	8	9	6	70	6,4	4,0	4
3	overlapping utterances	in L1	T/P	3	3	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	12	1,1	1,0	5
			L	6	0	3	1	1	0	0	1	2	0	1	15	1,4	1,8	6
		in L2	T/P	27	4	7	13	5	2	2	1	4	0	2	67	6,1	7,8	7
			L	11	1	4	2	0	2	1	0	0	2	3	26	2,4	3,1	8
4	latched utterances	in L1	T/P	2	1	2	1	5	0	0	3	3	0	1	18	1,6	1,6	9
			L	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0,4	0,9	10
		in L2	T/P	9	5	4	4	6	2	2	2	2	3	2	41	3,7	2,2	11
			L	1	0	3	3	3	1	1	1	2	2	1	18	1,6	1,0	12
5	repetition			0	2	6	4	2	2	1	3	1	1	2	24	2,2	1,7	13
6	memorization			0	0	1	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	6	0,5	1,2	14
7	formulaic expressions			0	1	2	5	0	1	0	2	2	0	3	16	1,5	1,6	15
8	verbal attention getter	in L1		3	6	7	0	1	2	0	9	4	3	0	35	3,2	3,1	16
		in L2		2	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	6	0,5	0,7	17
9	talk to self	in L1		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	18
		in L2		21	4	6	4	0	1	0	3	2	0	0	41	3,7	6,1	19
10	anticipatory answer			7	1	1	2	8	6	0	0	0	0	1	26	2,4	3,1	20
11	monitoring			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	2	5	0,5	0,8	21
12	request for clarification	T		1	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	6	0,5	0,7	22
		L		2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0,2	0,6	23
13	coinage			4	2	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	8	18	36	3,3	5,4	24
14	language switch			1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	6	0,5	0,8	25
15	translation			1	3	3	2	0	1	5	3	9	0	2	29	2,6	2,6	26
16	hesitation noises			1	13	0	0	1	0	2	12	15	4	8	56	5,1	5,8	27
17	interjections			0	0	0	0	3	0	0	4	1	1	3	12	1,1	1,5	28
18	pauses	No		4	8	3	7	2	2	5	21	17	5	16	90	8,2	6,7	29
		Sum (in seconds)		12	20	8	18	2	7	15	36	40	8	47	213	19,4	15,0	30
19	appeal for assistance			6	9	3	2	1	3	0	8	5	0	3	40	3,6	3,0	31
20	teacher's prompting			4	17	9	9	3	7	13	16	19	2	12	111	10,1	5,8	32
21	learner's prompting			8	5	3	2	5	3	10	9	7	6	4	62	5,6	2,6	33
22	teacher's repair			1	0	4	1	1	0	2	5	1	7	7	29	2,6	2,7	34
23	learner's repair			2	3	4	3	2	1	0	1	0	3	3	22	2,0	1,3	35

Table 13. Discourse features' number of occurrence in the statistical sample (CG)

Discourse feature				***CG*** Number of occurrence per lesson											Σ	$x_{śr}$	S	Number of variable
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11				
1	self-initiated turns	in L1		15	13	18	13	19	10	11	11	32	27	7	176	16,0	7,6	1
		in L2		17	10	12	20	19	11	23	16	20	20	8	176	16,0	5,0	2
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L1		2	4	3	9	5	5	4	1	5	9	1	48	4,4	2,7	3
		in L2		6	10	7	3	7	3	5	6	5	9	5	66	6,0	2,2	4
3	overlapping utterances	in L1	T	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	3	2	0	9	0,8	1,1	5
			L	1	1	0	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	9	0,8	1,0	6
		in L2	T	1	3	1	4	3	1	1	1	3	0	1	19	1,7	1,3	7
			L	2	2	2	7	1	1	0	1	1	4	1	22	2,0	1,9	8
4	latched utterances	in L1	T	2	0	8	1	1	3	1	0	3	2	0	21	1,9	2,3	9
			L	1	2	2	0	1	3	1	0	0	2	0	12	1,1	1,0	10
		in L2	T	4	3	3	3	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	19	1,7	1,3	11
			L	0	2	2	2	0	3	0	1	0	1	0	11	1,0	1,1	12
5	repetition			13	15	13	18	13	7	11	10	10	13	13	136	12,4	2,9	13
6	memorization			1	5	1	1	3	0	2	1	1	1	0	16	1,5	1,4	14
7	formulaic expressions			0	0	0	4	1	1	5	4	2	2	0	19	1,7	1,8	15
8	verbal attention getter	in L1		2	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	7	0,6	0,7	16
		in L2		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0,1	0,3	17
9	talk to self	in L1		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0,1	0,3	18
		in L2		5	1	0	1	1	0	2	3	0	1	0	14	1,3	1,6	19
10	anticipatory answer			4	8	2	1	1	1	3	0	1	0	0	21	1,9	2,4	20
11	monitoring			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	21
12	request for clarification	T		0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0,2	0,4	22
		L		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	23
13	coinage			2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	8	0,7	1,1	24
14	language switch			13	5	3	1	2	2	2	1	4	9	5	47	4,3	3,7	25
15	translation			0	0	0	1	1	0	3	0	2	1	1	9	0,8	1,0	26
16	hesitation noises			9	20	2	5	12	7	5	8	7	10	3	88	8,0	5,0	27
17	interjections			2	8	3	1	2	1	4	2	5	3	0	31	2,8	2,2	28
18	pauses	No		15	41	7	15	6	4	4	15	48	10	7	172	15,6	15,0	29
		Sum (in seconds)		36	100	23	33	8	11	8	43	182	28	26	498	45,3	52,0	30
19	appeal for assistance			0	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	1	1	10	0,9	0,8	31
20	teacher's prompting			10	24	24	18	9	4	9	19	48	14	10	189	17,2	12,1	32
21	learner's prompting			5	3	1	3	5	3	4	4	5	5	3	41	3,7	1,3	33
22	teacher's repair			5	2	3	2	3	1	1	1	2	3	4	27	2,5	1,3	34
23	learner's repair			1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	4	0,4	0,7	35

5.2.1.2. The number of occurrence of discourse features in Study 2

Table 14 shows the number of occurrence of 35 discourse features in each of the 11 transcribed lessons for CGP, as well as the total number of occurrence of every discourse feature, the mean value of occurrence and the value of standard deviation which are necessary for the calculation of parameter t.

Table 14. Discourse features' number of occurrence in the statistical sample (CGP)

				CGP														Number of variable
Discourse feature				Number of occurrence per lesson											Σ	$x_{śr}$	S	
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11				
1	self-initiated turns	in L1		10	18	3	9	12	16	17	3	7	6	9	110	10,0	5,3	1
		in L2		21	36	31	21	30	59	28	33	15	15	33	322	29,3	12,3	2
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L1		2	5	0	2	2	8	6	2	3	1	0	31	2,8	2,5	3
		in L2		13	18	19	12	14	25	13	3	6	18	19	160	14,5	6,3	4
3	overlapping utterances	in L1	T/P	0	6	0	2	2	1	2	1	0	0	1	15	1,4	1,7	5
			L	0	4	0	2	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	9	0,8	1,3	6
		in L2	T/P	7	9	7	5	9	13	10	5	1	5	8	79	7,2	3,2	7
			L	4	8	5	5	5	16	5	3	1	5	7	64	5,8	3,8	8
4	latched utterances	in L1	T/P	1	5	3	1	1	2	5	0	0	0	1	19	1,7	1,8	9
			L	0	0	0	1	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	7	0,6	1,0	10
		in L2	T/P	3	13	4	8	5	8	3	7	4	1	4	60	5,5	3,3	11
			L	1	4	6	3	3	7	1	2	3	4	4	38	3,5	1,9	12
5	repetition			11	2	2	0	7	6	3	5	0	2	1	39	3,5	3,4	13
6	memorization			0	2	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	0,3	0,6	14
7	formulaic expressions			2	4	2	2	2	2	8	2	0	3	1	28	2,5	2,1	15
8	verbal attention getter	in L1		4	8	1	3	0	7	3	1	2	2	1	32	2,9	2,5	16
		in L2		0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	0,2	0,4	17
9	talk to self	in L1		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	18
		in L2		4	2	3	1	1	10	5	3	0	0	7	36	3,3	3,1	19
10	anticipatory answer			2	6	1	1	0	0	4	4	1	0	1	20	1,8	2,0	20
11	monitoring			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	21
12	request for clarification	T		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	22
		L		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0,0	0,0	23
13	coinage			6	6	1	3	2	1	1	4	1	0	1	26	2,4	2,1	24
14	language switch			2	4	2	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	4	16	1,5	1,4	25
15	translation			2	4	3	4	6	3	8	3	4	3	2	42	3,8	1,8	26
16	hesitation noises			9	9	3	3	7	6	12	4	2	3	4	62	5,6	3,2	27
17	interjections			0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	2	6	0,5	0,7	28
18	pauses	No		15	23	20	10	23	28	24	10	11	17	20	201	18,3	6,2	29
		Sum (in seconds)		48	70	59	34	82	80	83	33	45	60	74	668	60,7	18,6	30
19	appeal for assistance			8	1	7	8	6	10	4	2	3	2	3	54	4,9	3,0	31
20	teacher's prompting			24	11	16	9	16	17	10	7	3	4	8	125	11,4	6,3	32
21	learner's prompting			9	18	23	21	21	44	14	11	12	14	12	199	18,1	9,8	33
22	teacher's repair			9	9	5	1	4	4	7	1	1	2	1	44	4,0	3,2	34
23	learner's repair			2	3	6	4	3	3	1	4	1	1	4	32	2,9	1,6	35

5.2.2. The results of the t-test

The following two sections present the results of the t-test which attempted to verify the statistical significance of differences between discourse features' mean values of occurrence comparing PG1 with CG, PG2 with CG, and PG1 with PG2 in Study 1, and CG with CGP in Study 2. The decision on the acceptance of the statistically significant differences between mean values, that is on the rejection of the null hypothesis H_0, was made on the basis of the calculation of the parameter t and examination whether the obtained value is located in the region of rejection Q (see section 4.2.2.5.) created by the parameter t's critical value, which for the degrees of freedom *v=n–1=11–1=10* and α=0,05 amounts to t_α=2,228 and determines two-sided region of rejection $Q = \{t: |t| \geq t_\alpha\}$ (see Figure 5, section 4.2.2.5.).

5.2.2.1. The results of the t-test conducted in Study 1

Discourse features which have not been assigned statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence in PG1 and CG, and in PG2 and CG are the following: another-learner initiated turn in L2, overlapping utterances in L1 (with both variants T/P and L), overlapping utterances in L2 (variant L), latched utterances in L1 (variant T/P), latched utterances in L2 (variant L), memorization, formulaic expressions, verbal attention getter in L2, talk to self in L1 and in L2, anticipatory answer, monitoring, request for clarification (with both variants T and L), hesitation noises, pauses (with both variants: number and sum in seconds), teacher's prompting and teacher's repair (see Table 15).

The values of the parameter t presented in bold in Table 15 indicate that statistically significant differences (with 95% probability) were found between mean values of occurrence for particular discourse features while comparing PG1 with CG, PG2 with CG, and PG1 with PG2. Negative values signal that the mean value of occurrence for a particular discourse feature is higher in the puppet's groups (PG1 and PG2) than in CG. As such, on the basis of the t-test results, the following discourse features have been assigned statistically significant differences between mean values:

- self-initiated turns in L1 (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in CG);
- self-initiated turns in L2 (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1 and PG2);
- another-learner initiated turns in L1 (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in CG);
- overlapping utterances in L2, variant T/P (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance only in PG1 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1);
- latched utterances in L1, variant L (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance only in PG1 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in CG);
- latched utterances in L2, variant T/P (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1 and PG2);
- repetition (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in CG);
- verbal attention getter in L1 (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1 and PG2);
- coinage (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance only in PG1 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1);
- language switch (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in CG);
- translation (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance only in PG1 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1);

- interjections (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance only in PG1 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in CG);
- appeal for assistance (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1 and PG2);
- learner's prompting (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance only in PG1 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1);
- learner's repair (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance both in PG1 in comparison with CG, and in PG2 in comparison with CG, with higher values obtained in PG1 and PG2).

In order to compare mean values of discourse features' occurrence in the two puppet's groups, PG1 and PG2, we have calculated parameter t to examine whether there were statistically significant differences between mean values obtained in these groups. Table 15 demonstrates that for all mean values of discourse features' occurrence, except for repetition, where parameter t is presented in bold, no statistically significant differences were found.

Table 15. The results of the t-test in Study 1

Study 1 Discourse feature				*CG vs PG1*	*CG vs PG2*	*PG1 vs PG2*
1	self-initiated turns	in L1		**3,408**	**3,070**	0,054
		in L2		**–3,032**	**–2,900**	–0,924
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L1		**2,667**	**2,258**	–0,225
		in L2		0,521	–0,265	–0,627
3	overlapping utterances	in L1	T/P	–0,960	–0,602	0,553
			L	0,707	–0,881	–1,369
		in L2	T/P	**–2,603**	–1,831	–0,268
			L	0,126	–0,326	–0,440
4	latched utterances	in L1	T/P	–0,378	0,325	0,666
			L	**2,372**	1,729	–0,291
		in L2	T/P	**–2,431**	**–2,575**	0,251
			L	–0,971	–1,406	–0,165
5	repetition			**6,229**	**10,173**	**2,279**
6	memorization			0,639	1,601	1,051
7	formulaic expressions			0,489	0,373	–0,133
8	verbal attention getter	in L1		**–3,811**	**–2,694**	1,103
		in L2		–1,181	–2,008	0,183
9	talk to self	in L1		1,000	1,000	
		in L2		–1,452	–1,296	–0,652
10	anticipatory answer			–0,258	–0,387	–0,151
11	monitoring				–1,838	–1,838
12	request for clarification	T		0,598	–1,512	–2,008
		L			–1,000	–1,000
13	coinage			**–2,510**	–1,525	–0,200
14	language switch			**2,619**	**3,247**	2,123
15	translation			**–3,565**	–2,185	1,190
16	hesitation noises			0,631	1,262	0,586
17	interjections			**3,497**	2,127	–,456
18	pauses	No		1,079	1,510	0,600
		Sum (in seconds)		1,168	1,587	0,862
19	appeal for assistance			**–2,820**	**–2,868**	–0,144
20	teacher's prompting			1,241	1,750	0,496
21	learner's prompting			**–2,714**	–2,175	0,257
22	teacher's repair			0,874	–0,204	–0,810
23	learner's repair			**–4,755**	**–3,614**	0,809

5.2.2.2. The results of the t-test conducted in Study 2

Discourse features which have not been assigned statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence in CG and CGP are the following: self-initiated turns in L1, another-learner initiated turns in L1, overlapping utterances in L1 (both variants T/P and L), latched utterances in L1 (both variants T/P and L), formulaic expressions, verbal

attention getter in L2, talk to self in L1 and in L2, anticipatory answer, monitoring, request for clarification (with both variants T and L), hesitation noises, pauses (with both variants: number and sum in seconds), teacher's prompting and teacher's repair (see Table 16).

The values of the parameter t presented in bold in Table 16 indicate that statistically significant differences (with 95% probability) were found between mean values of occurrence for particular discourse features while comparing CG and CGP. Negative values signal that the mean value of occurrence for a particular discourse feature is higher in CGP than in CG. As such, on the basis of the t-test results, the following discourse features have been assigned statistically significant differences between mean values:

- self-initiated turns in L2 (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- another-learner initiated turns in L2 (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- overlapping utterances in L2, variant T/P (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- overlapping utterances in L2, variant L (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- latched utterances in L2, variant T/P (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- latched utterances in L2, variant L (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- repetition (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CG);
- memorization (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CG);

- verbal attention getter in L1 (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- coinage (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- language switch (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CG);
- translation (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- interjections (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CG);
- appeal for assistance (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- learner's prompting (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP);
- learner's repair (the mean values of occurrence were different in terms of statistical significance in CG in comparison with CGP, with higher values obtained in CGP).

Table 16. The results of the t-test in Study 2

Stage II				*CG vs CGP*
Discourse feature				
1	self-initiated turns	in L1		2,153
		in L2		**–3,324**
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L1		1,379
		in L2		**–4,279**
3	overlapping utterances	in L1	T/P	–0,881
			L	0,000
		in L2	T/P	**–5,270**
			L	**–2,939**
4	latched utterances	in L1	T/P	0,204
			L	1,029
		in L2	T/P	**–3,470**
			L	**–3,766**
5	repetition			**6,585**
6	memorization			**2,484**
7	formulaic expressions			–0,978
8	verbal attention getter	in L1		**–2,860**
		in L2		–0,598
9	talk to self	in L1		1,000
		in L2		–1,912
10	anticipatory answer			0,097
11	monitoring			
12	request for clarification		T	1,491
			L	
13	coinage			**–2,279**
14	language switch			**2,345**
15	translation			**–4,898**
16	hesitation noises			1,324
17	interjections			**3,233**
18	pauses	No		–0,541
		Sum (in seconds)		–0,928
19	appeal for assistance			**–4,242**
20	teacher’s prompting			1,413
21	learner’s prompting			**–4,839**
22	teacher’s repair			–1,500
23	learner’s repair			**–4,919**

5.2.3. Confidence intervals of discourse features (with statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence)

In the following sections we are going to present confidence intervals for those discourse features which have been assigned statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence in PG1, PG2 in comparison with CG in Study 1 (Figures 7 –21), and in CG in comparison with CGP in Study 2 (Figures 22 –37). Confidence intervals have been delineated with the help of the data from Table 17 (in Study 1) and 19 (in Study 2), which show: mean value of occurrence, the value of confidence half-interval (0,5L) (upper and lower boundary) calculated on the basis of the standard deviation S obtained from the statistical sample and the critical value of parameter t_{α}=2,228. In order to describe the figures illustrating confidence intervals, we are going to provide: mean value of discourse feature's occurrence ($\bar{x}$), the upper (x_u) and lower (x_l) boundary of confidence interval, the change in direction (increase or decrease in the mean value of occurrence) and relative changes of mean values in PG1, PG2 in comparison with CG (in Study 1) and CG in comparison with CGP (in Study 2). Relative changes of mean values, expressed in percentages, are presented in Table 18 (in Study 1) and Table 20 (in Study 2).

5.2.3.1. Confidence intervals of discourse features in Study 1 (with statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence)

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of self-initiated turns in L1 is located between 10,9 and 21,1 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 16); in PG1 – between 5,9 and 9,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 7,7); in PG2 – between 4,3 and 10,9 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 7,6) (see Table 17 and Figure 7 below). The mean value of occurrence is 52% higher in CG than in PG1 and PG2 (see Table 18).

Table 17. Confidence intervals of discourse features with statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence (Study 1)

				CG				**PG1**				**PG2**			
Discourse feature				$\bar{x}$	0,5L	x_l	x_u	$\bar{x}$	0,5L	x_l	x_u	$\bar{x}$	0,5L	x_l	x_u
1	self-initiated turns	in L1		16,0	5,1	10,9	21,1	7,7	1,8	5,9	9,5	7,6	3,3	4,3	10,9
		in L2		16,0	3,3	12,7	19,3	22,5	3,5	19,1	26,0	25,6	6,6	19,0	32,2
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L1		4,4	1,8	2,5	6,2	1,8	1,1	0,7	2,9	2,0	1,4	0,6	3,4
3	overlapping utterances	in L2	T/P	1,7	0,9	0,9	2,6	5,4	3,0	2,4	8,4	6,1	5,2	0,8	11,3
4	latched utterances	in L1	L	1,1	0,7	0,4	1,8	0,3	0,3	0,0	0,6	0,4	0,6	–0,3	1,0
		in L2	T/P	1,7	0,9	0,9	2,6	4,0	1,9	2,1	5,9	3,7	1,5	2,2	5,2
5	repetition			12,4	1,9	10,4	14,3	4,5	2,0	2,5	6,6	2,2	1,1	1,1	3,3
8	verbal attention getter	in L1		0,6	0,5	0,2	1,1	4,7	2,3	2,4	7,1	3,2	2,1	1,1	5,2
13	coinage			0,7	0,7	0,0	1,5	2,9	1,8	1,1	4,7	3,3	3,6	–0,4	6,9
14	language switch			4,3	2,5	1,8	6,8	1,3	0,5	0,7	1,8	0,5	0,6	0,0	1,1
15	translation			0,8	0,7	0,2	1,5	4,0	1,9	2,1	5,9	2,6	1,7	0,9	4,4
17	interjections			2,8	1,5	1,3	4,3	0,4	0,5	–0,1	0,8	1,1	1,0	0,1	2,1
19	appeal for assistance			0,9	0,6	0,4	1,5	3,5	1,9	1,5	5,4	3,6	2,0	1,6	5,7
21	learner's prompting			3,7	0,9	2,9	4,6	5,9	1,6	4,3	7,5	5,6	1,8	3,9	7,4
23	learner's repair			0,4	0,5	–0,1	0,8	2,5	0,9	1,6	3,3	2,0	0,9	1,1	2,9

Table 18. Relative changes of discourse features' number of occurrence (Study 1)

	Discourse feature			CG vs PG1	Relative change	CG vs PG2	Relative change	Mean value of relative changes
1	self-initiated turns	in L1		176 > 85	–52%	176 > 84	–52%	–52%
		in L2		176 < 248	41%	176 < 282	60%	51%
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L1		48 > 20	–58%	48 > 22	–54%	–56%
3	overlapping utterances	in L2	T/P	19 < 59	211%	19 < 67	253%	232%
4	latched utterances	in L1	L	12 > 3	–75%	12 > 4	–67%	–71%
		in L2	T/P	19 < 44	132%	19 < 41	116%	124%
5	repetition			136 > 50	–63%	136 > 24	–82%	–73%
6	verbal attention getter	in L1		7 < 52	643%	7 < 35	400%	521%
7	coinage			8 < 32	300%	8 < 36	350%	325%
8	language switch			47 > 14	–70%	47 > 6	–87%	–79%
9	translation			9 < 44	389%	9 < 29	222%	306%
10	interjections			31 > 4	–87%	31 > 12	–61%	–74%
11	appeal for assistance			10 < 38	280%	10 < 40	300%	290%
12	learner's prompting			41 < 65	59%	41 < 62	51%	55%
13	learner's repair			4 < 27	575%	4 < 22	450%	513%

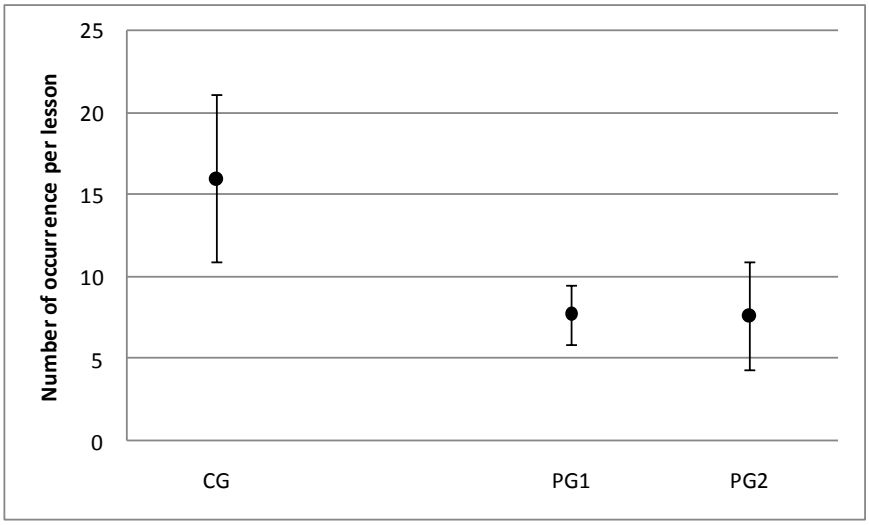


Figure 7. Confidence intervals for self-initiated turns in L1

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of self-initiated turns in L2 is located between 12,7 and 19,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 16); in PG1 – between 19,1 and 26 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 22,5); in PG2 – between 19 and 32,2 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 25,6) (see Table 17 and Figure 8). The mean value of occurrence is 41% and 60% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 50,5% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

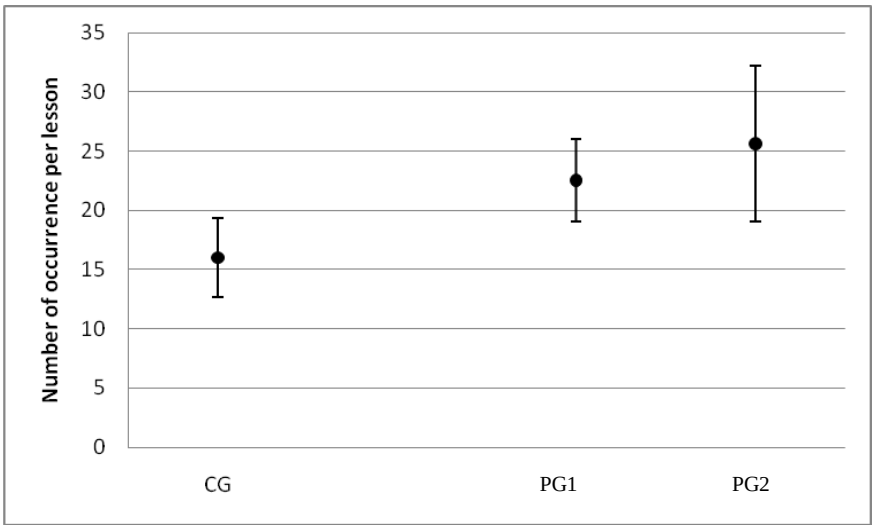


Figure 8. Confidence intervals for self-initiated turns in L2

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of another-learner initiated turns in L1 is located between 2,5 and 6,2 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 4,4); in PG1 – between 0,7 and 2,9 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,8); in PG2 – between 0,6 and 3,4 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2) (see Table 17 and Figure 9). The mean value of occurrence is 58% and 54% lower in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 56% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups (see Table 18).

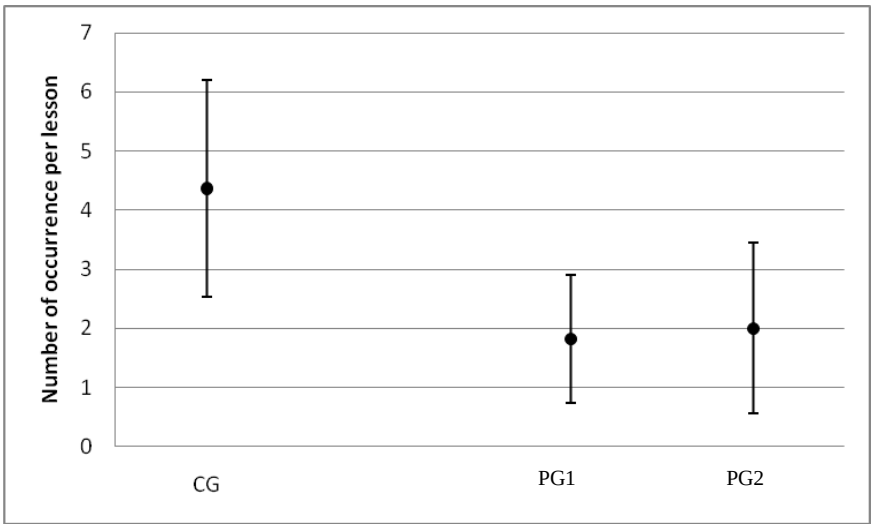


Figure 9. Confidence intervals for another-learner initiated turns in L1

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of overlapping utterances in L2 (T/P) is located between 0,9 and 2,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,7); in PG1 – between 2,4 and 8,4 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 5,4); in PG2 – between 0,8 and 11,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 6,1) (see Table 17 and Figure 10). The mean value of occurrence is 211% and 253% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 232% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

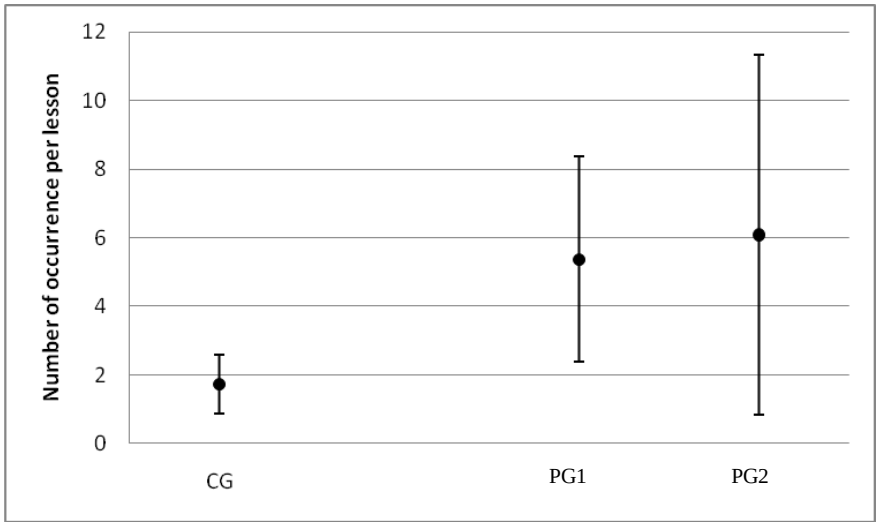


Figure 10. Confidence intervals for overlapping utterances in L2, T/P

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of latched utterances in L1 (L) is located between 0,4 and 1,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,1); in PG1 – between 0,0 and 0,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,3); in PG2 – between –0,3 and 1 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,4) (see Table 17 and Figure 11). The mean value of occurrence is 75% and 67% lower in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 71% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups (see Table 18).

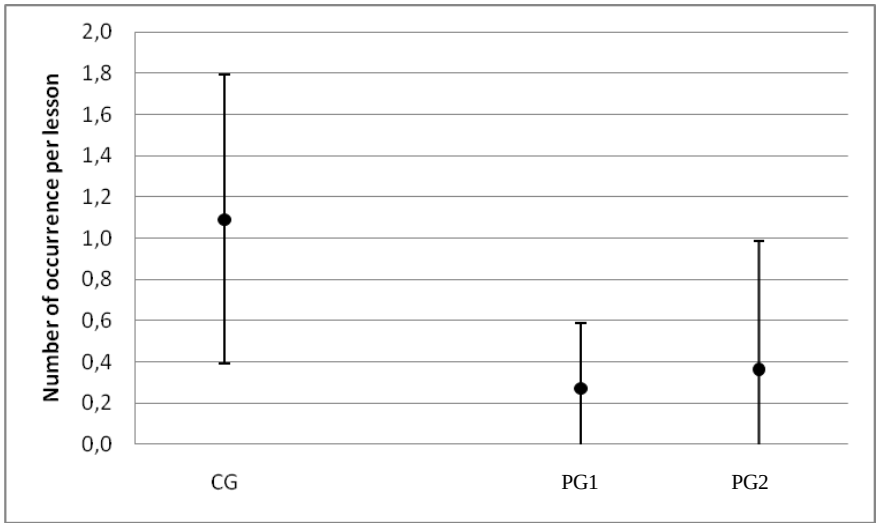


Figure 11. Confidence intervals for latched utterances in L1, L

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of latched utterances in L2 (T/P) is located between 0,9 and 2,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,7); in PG1 –

between 2,1 and 5,9 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 4); in PG2 – between 2,2 and 5,2 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,7) (see Table 17 and Figure 12). The mean value of occurrence is 132% and 116% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 124% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

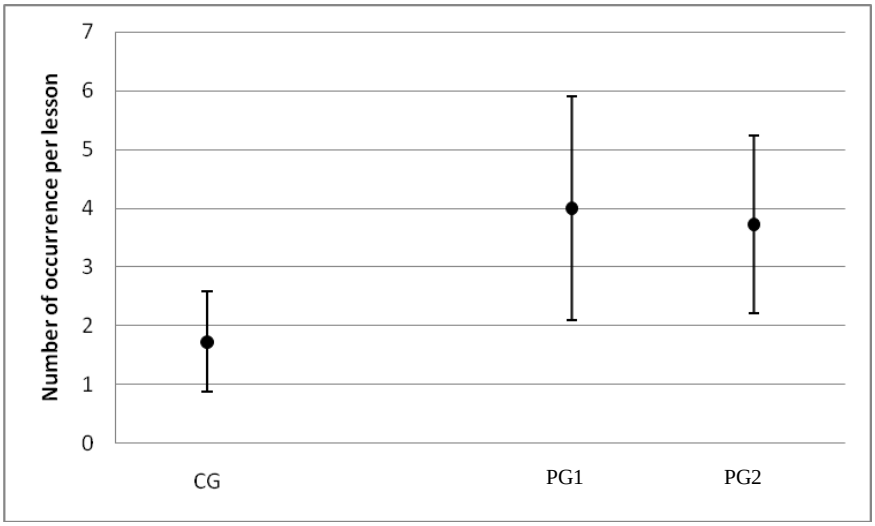


Figure 12. Confidence intervals for latched utterances in L2, T/P

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of repetition is located between 10,4 and 14,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 12,4); in PG1 – between 2,5 and 6,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 4,5); in PG2 – between 1,1 and 3,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2,2) (see Table 17 and Figure 13). The mean value of occurrence is 63% and 82% lower in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 72,5% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups (see Table 18).

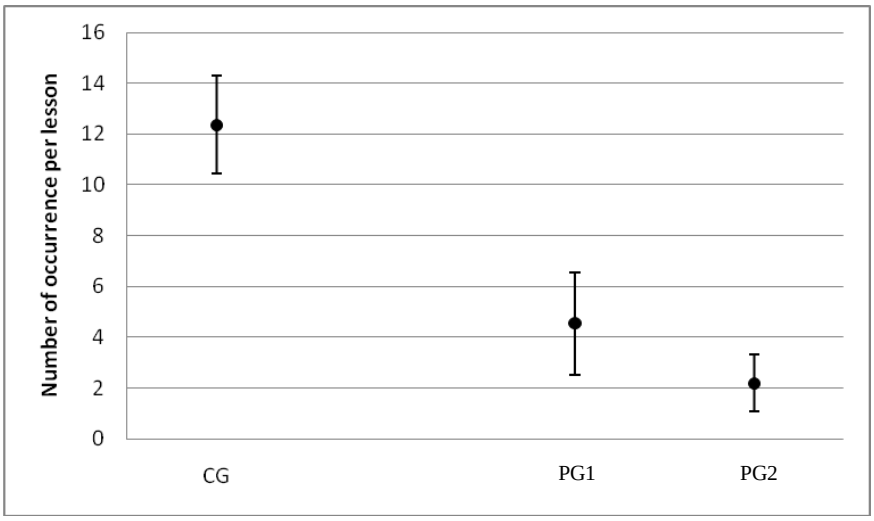


Figure 13. Confidence intervals for repetition

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of verbal attention getter in L1 is located between 0,2 and 1,1 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,6); in PG1 – between 2,4 and 7,1 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 4,7); in PG2 – between 1,1 and 5,2 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,2) (see Table 17 and Figure 14). The mean value of occurrence is 643% and 400% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 521,5% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

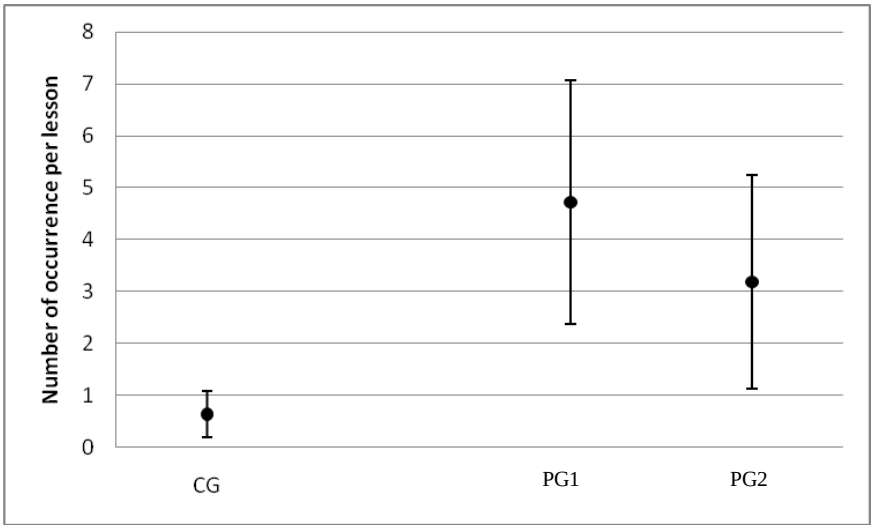


Figure 14. Confidence intervals for verbal attention getter in L1

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of coinage is located between 0 and 1,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,7); in PG1 – between 1,1 and 4,7 (mean

value of occurrence amounts to 2,9); in PG2 – between –0,4 and 6,9 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,3) (see Table 17 and Figure 15). The mean value of occurrence is 300% and 350% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 325% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

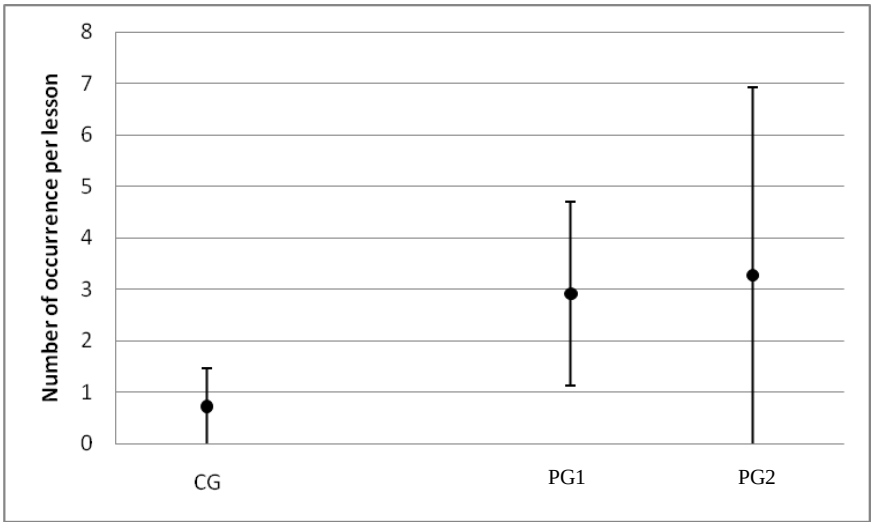


Figure 15. Confidence intervals for coinage

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of language switch is located between 1,8 and 6,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 4,3); in PG1 – between 0,7 and 1,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,3); in PG2 – between 0 and 1,1 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,5) (see Table 17 and Figure 16). The mean value of occurrence is 70% and 87% lower in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 78,5% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups (see Table 18).

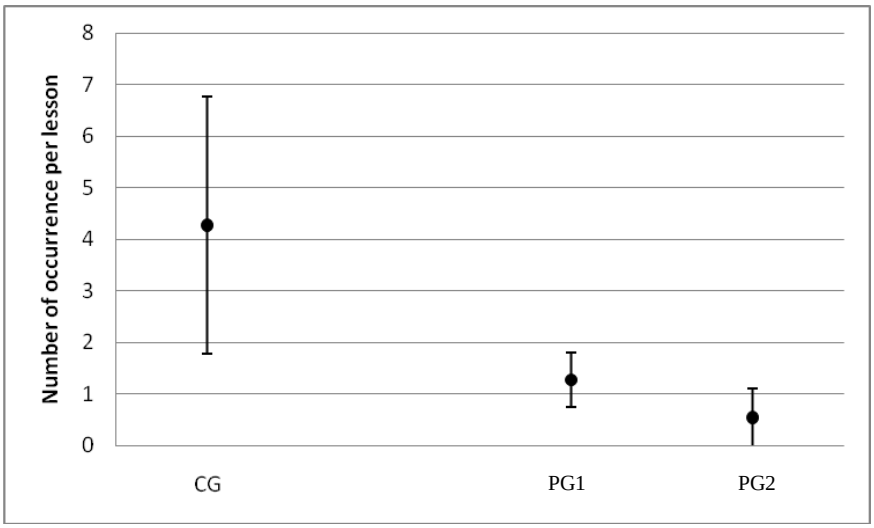


Figure 16. Confidence intervals for language switch

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of translation is located between 0,2 and 1,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,8); in PG1 – between 2,1 and 5,9 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 4); in PG2 – between 0,9 and 4,4 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2,6) (see Table 17 and Figure 17). The mean value of occurrence is 389% and 222% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 305,5% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

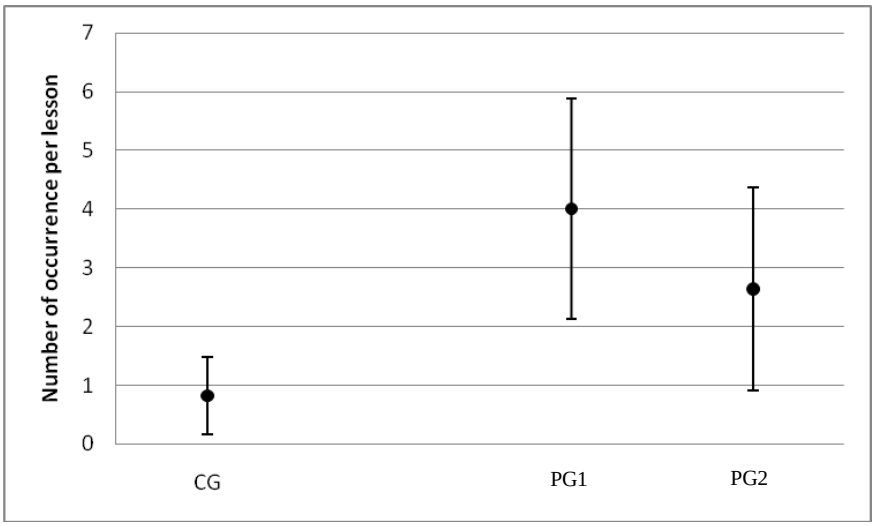


Figure 17. Confidence intervals for translation

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of interjections is located between 1,3 and 4,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2,8); in PG1 – between –0,1 and 0,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,4); in PG2 – between 0,1 and 2,1 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,1) (see Table 17 and Figure 18). The mean value of occurrence is 87% and 61% lower in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 74% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups (see Table 18).

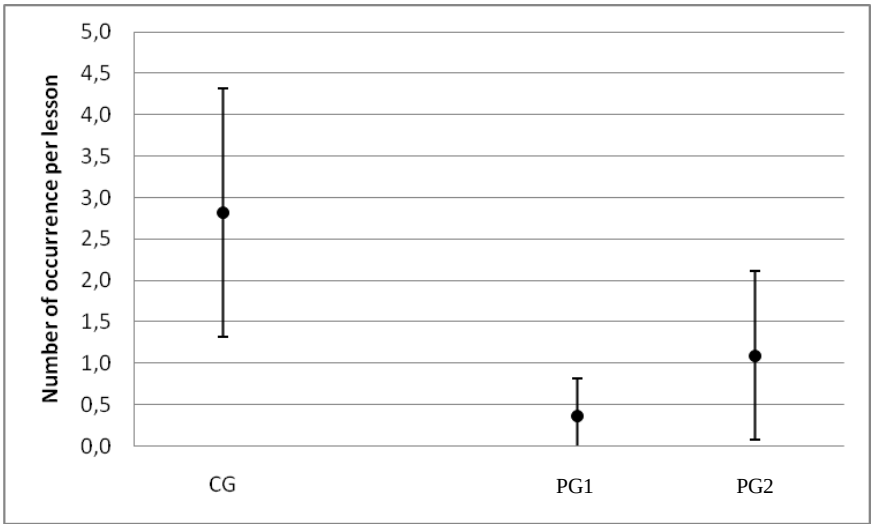


Figure 18. Confidence intervals for interjections

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of appeal for assistance is located between 0,4 and 1,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,9); in PG1 – between 1,5 and 5,4 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,5); in PG2 – between 1,6 and 5,7 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,6) (see Table 17 and Figure 19). The mean value of occurrence is 280% and 300% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 290% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

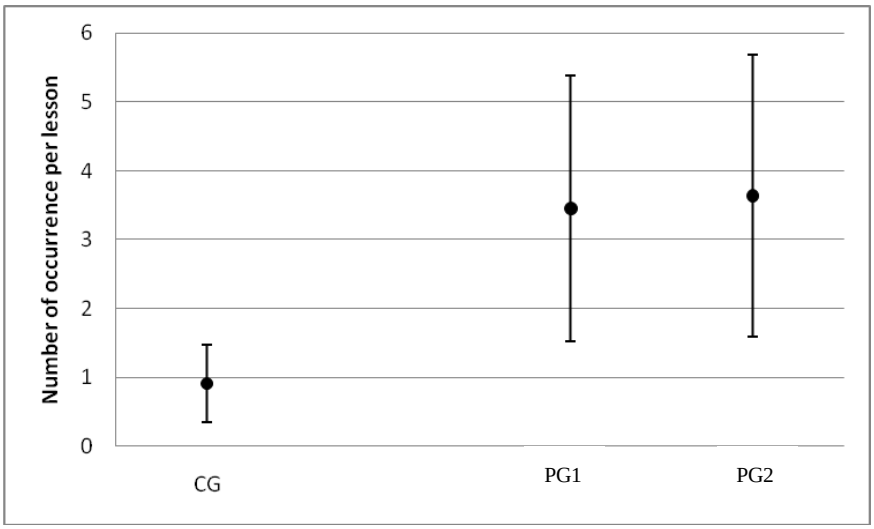


Figure 19. Confidence intervals for appeal for assistance

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of learner's prompting is located between 2,9 and 4,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,7); in PG1 – between 4,3 and 7,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 5,9); in PG2 – between 3,9 and 7,4

(mean value of occurrence amounts to 5,6) (see Table 17 and Figure 20). The mean value of occurrence is 59% and 51% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 55% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

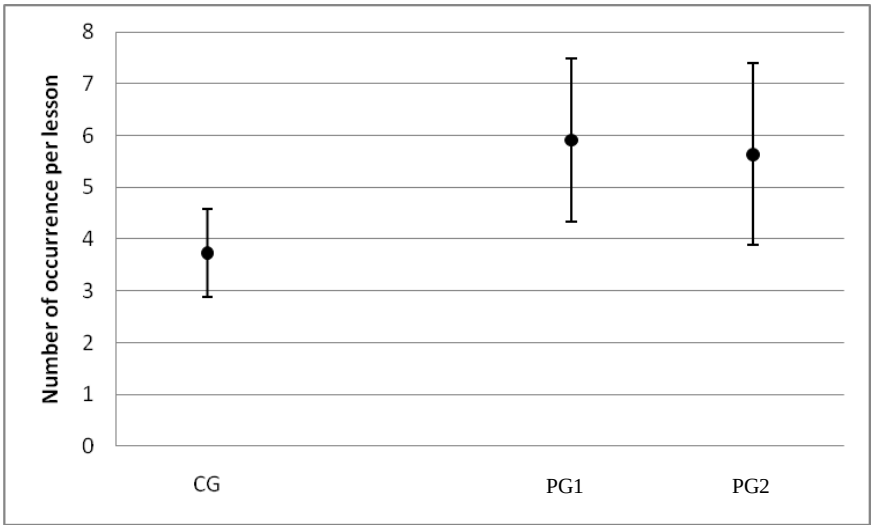


Figure 20. Confidence intervals for learner's prompting

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of learner's repair is located between –0,1 and 0,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,4); in PG1 – between 1,6 and 3,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2,5); in PG2 – between 1,1 and 2,9 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2) (see Table 17 and Figure 21). The mean value of occurrence is 575% and 450% higher in PG1 and PG2, respectively, than in CG. On average, it is 512,5% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG (see Table 18).

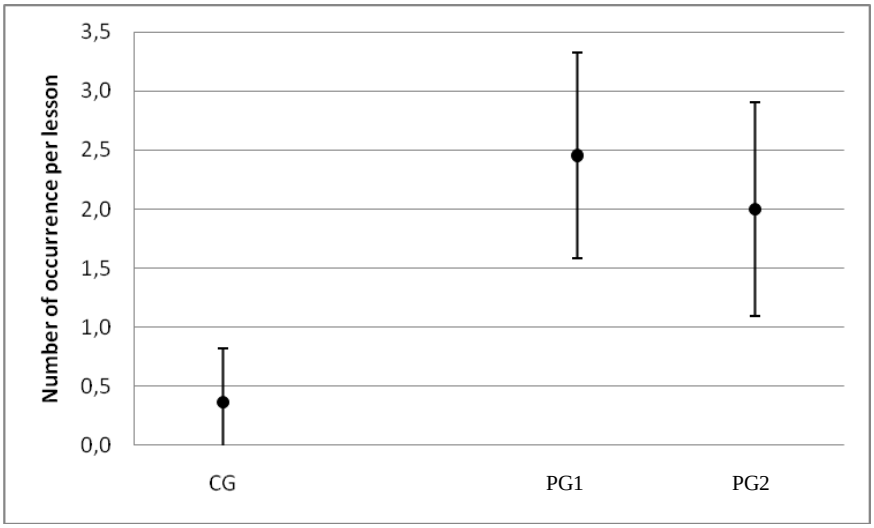


Figure 21. Confidence intervals for learner's repair

5.2.3.2. Confidence intervals of discourse features in Study 2 (with statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence)

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of self-initiated turns in L2 is located between 12,7 and 19,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 16); and in CGP – between 21 and 37,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 29,3) (see Table 19 and Figure 22). The mean value of occurrence is 83% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

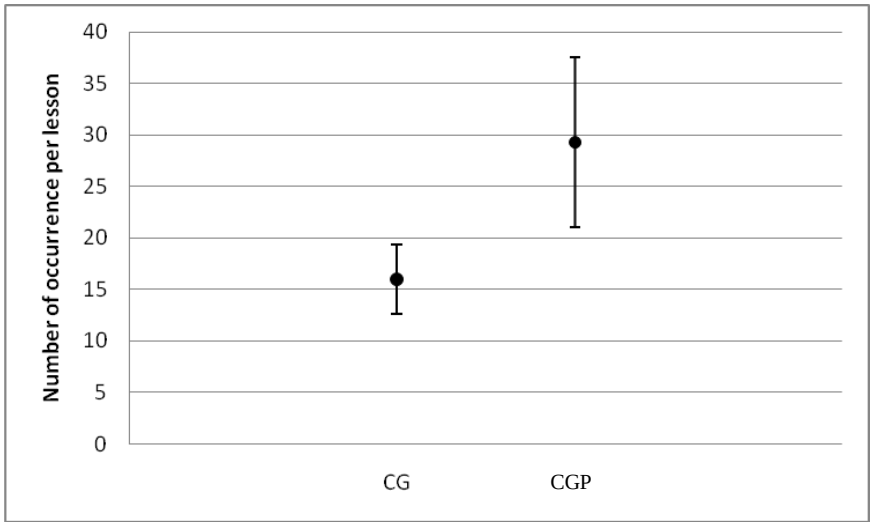


Figure 22. Confidence intervals for self-initiated turns in L2

Table 19. Confidence intervals of discourse features with statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence (Study 2)

	Discourse feature			CG				CGP			
				$\bar{x}$	L	x_l	x_u	$\bar{x}$	L	x_l	x_u
1	self-initiated turns	in L2		16,0	3,3	12,7	19,3	29,3	8,2	21,0	37,5
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L2		6,0	1,5	4,5	7,5	14,5	4,2	10,3	18,7
3	overlapping utterances	in L2	T/P	1,7	0,9	0,9	2,6	7,2	2,1	5,0	9,3
			L	2,0	1,3	0,7	3,3	5,8	2,6	3,2	8,4
4	latched utterances	in L2	T/P	1,7	0,9	0,9	2,6	5,5	2,2	3,2	7,7
			L	1,0	0,7	0,3	1,7	3,5	1,3	2,2	4,7
5	repetition			12,4	1,9	10,4	14,3	3,5	2,3	1,3	5,8
6	memorization			1,5	1,0	0,5	2,4	0,3	0,4	–0,2	0,7
8	verbal attention getter	in L1		0,6	0,5	0,2	1,1	2,9	1,7	1,2	4,6
13	coinage			0,7	0,7	0,0	1,5	2,4	1,4	0,9	3,8
14	language switch			4,3	2,5	1,8	6,8	1,5	1,0	0,5	2,4
15	translation			0,8	0,7	0,2	1,5	3,8	1,2	2,6	5,0
17	interjections			2,8	1,5	1,3	4,3	0,5	0,5	0,1	1,0
19	appeal for assistance			0,9	0,6	0,4	1,5	4,9	2,0	2,9	6,9
21	learner’s prompting			3,7	0,9	2,9	4,6	18,1	6,6	11,5	24,6
23	learner’s repair			0,4	0,5	–0,1	0,8	2,9	1,1	1,8	4,0

Table 20. Relative changes of discourse features' number of occurrence (Study 2)

Discourse feature				CG	vs	CGP	Relative changes
1	self-initiated turns	in L2		176	<	322	83%
2	another-learner initiated turns	in L2		66	<	160	142%
3	overlapping utterances	in L2	T/P	19	<	79	315%
			L	22	<	64	190%
4	latched utterances	in L2	T/P	19	<	60	216%
			L	11	<	38	245%
5	repetition			136	>	39	–71%
6	memorization			16	>	3	–81%
7	verbal attention getter	in L1		7	<	32	357%
8	coinage			8	<	26	225%
9	language switch			47	>	16	–66%
10	translation			9	<	42	367%
11	interjections			31	>	6	–81%
12	appeal for assistance			10	<	54	440%
13	learner's prompting			41	<	199	385%
14	learner's repair			4	<	32	700%

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of another-learner initiated turns in L2 is located between 4,5 and 7,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 6); and in CGP – between 10,3 and 18,7 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 14,5) (see Table 19 and Figure 23). The mean value of occurrence is 142% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

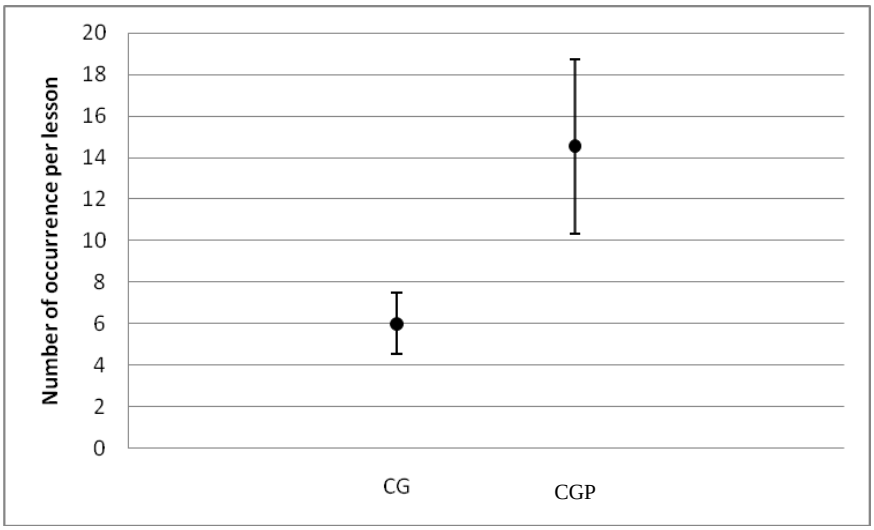


Figure 23. Confidence intervals for another-learner initiated turns in L2

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of overlapping utterances in L2 (T/P) is located between 0,9 and 2,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,7); and in CGP – between 5 and 9,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 7,2) (see Table 19 and Figure 24). The mean value of occurrence is 315% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

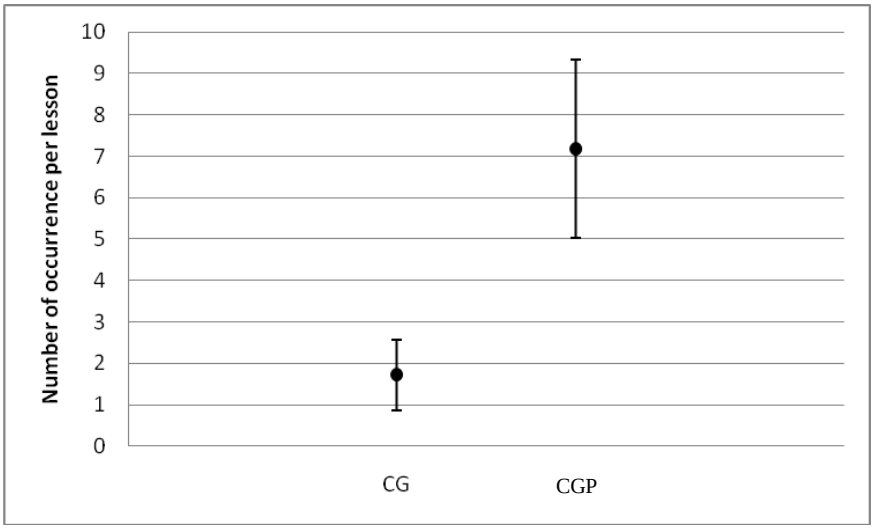


Figure 24. Confidence intervals for overlapping utterances in L2, T/P

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of overlapping utterances in L2 (L) is located between 0,7 and 3,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2); and in CGP – between 3,2 and 8,4 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 5,8) (see Table 19 and Figure 25). The mean value of occurrence is 190% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

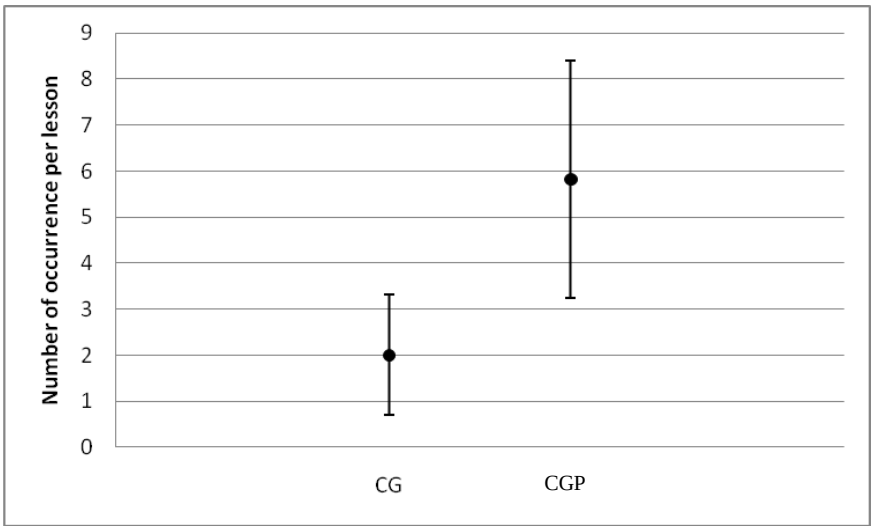


Figure 25. Confidence intervals for overlapping utterances in L2, L

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of latched utterances in L2 (T/P) is located between 0,9 and 2,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,7); and in CGP – between 3,2 and 7,7 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 5,5) (see Table 19 and Figure 26). The mean value of occurrence is 216% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

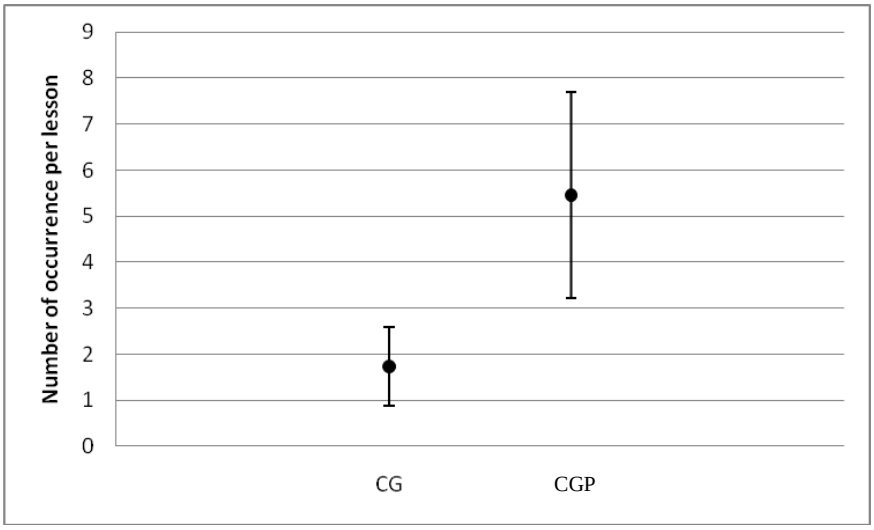


Figure 26. Confidence intervals for latched utterances in L2, T/P

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of latched utterances in L2 (L) is located between 0,3 and 1,7 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1); and in CGP – between 2,2 and 4,7 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,5) (see Table 19 and Figure 27). The mean value of occurrence is 245% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

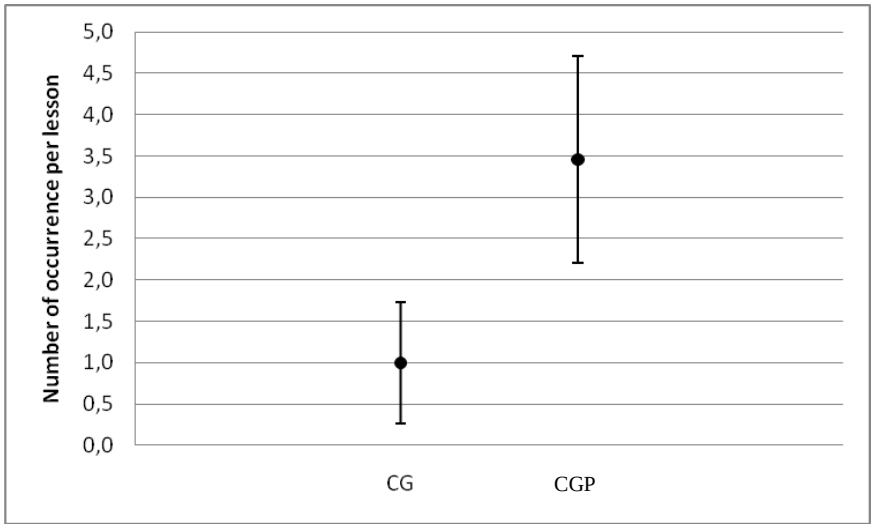


Figure 27. Confidence intervals for latched utterances in L2, L

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of repetition is located between 10,4 and 14,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 12,4); and in CGP – between 1,3 and

5,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,5) (see Table 19 and Figure 28). The mean value of occurrence is 71% higher in CG than in CGP (see Table 20).

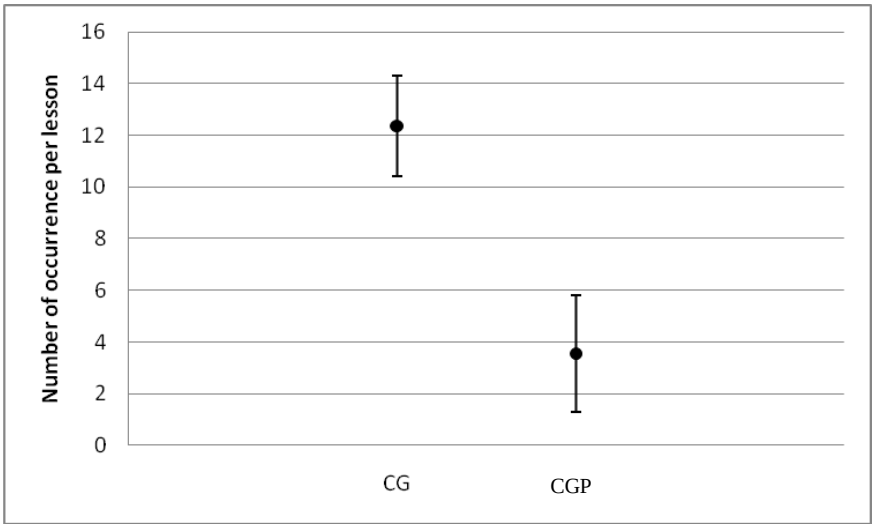


Figure 28. Confidence intervals for repetition

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of memorization is located between 0,5 and 2,4 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,5); and in CGP – between –0,2 and 0,7 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,3) (see Table 19 and Figure 29). The mean value of occurrence is 81% higher in CG than in CGP (see Table 20).

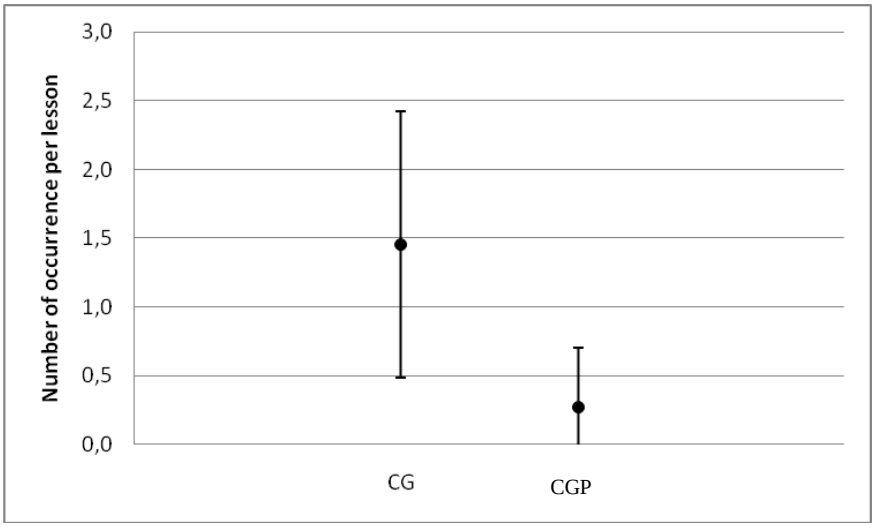


Figure 29. Confidence intervals for memorization

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of verbal attention getter in L1 is located between 0,2 and 1,1 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,6); and in CGP –

between 1,2 and 4,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2,9) (see Table 19 and Figure 30). The mean value of occurrence is 357% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

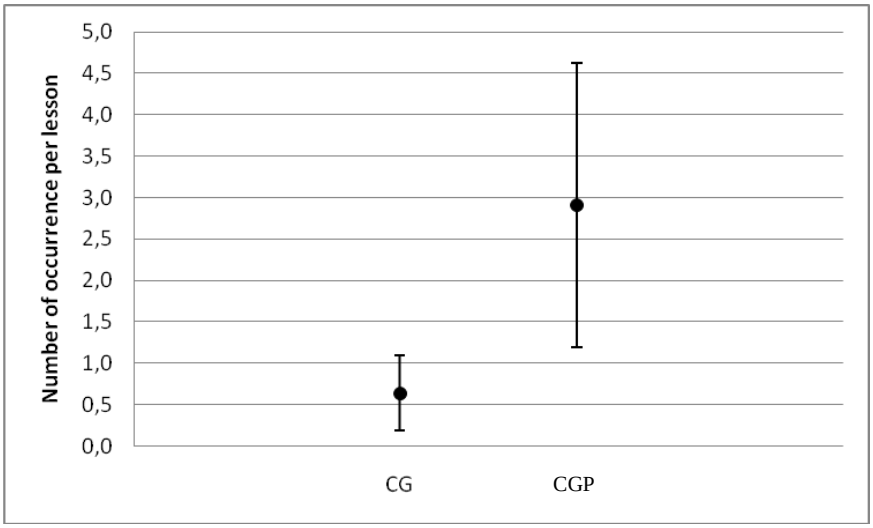


Figure 30. Confidence intervals for verbal attention getter in L1

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of coinage is located between 0 and 1,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,7); and in CGP – between 0,9 and 3,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2,4) (see Table 19 and Figure 31). The mean value of occurrence is 225% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

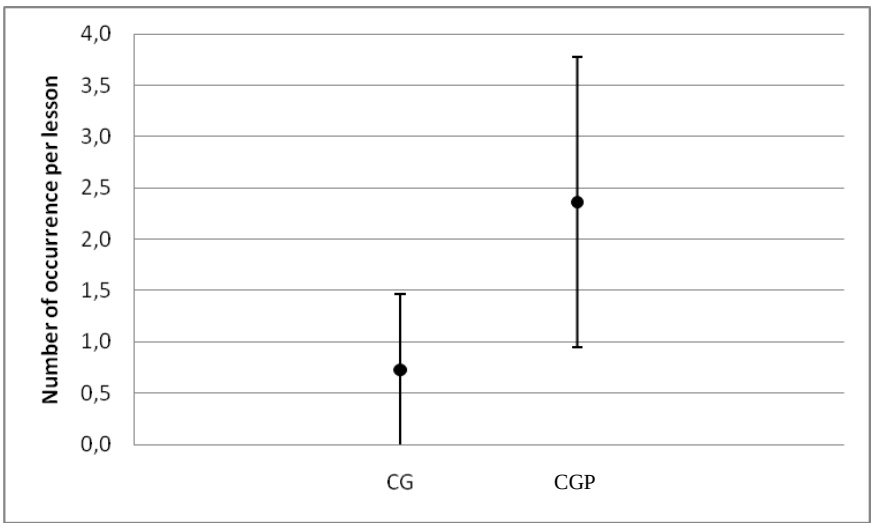


Figure 31. Confidence intervals for coinage

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of language switch is located between 1,8 and 6,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 4,3); and in CGP – between 0,5

and 2,4 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 1,5) (see Table 19 and Figure 32). The mean value of occurrence is 66% higher in CG than in CGP (see Table 20).

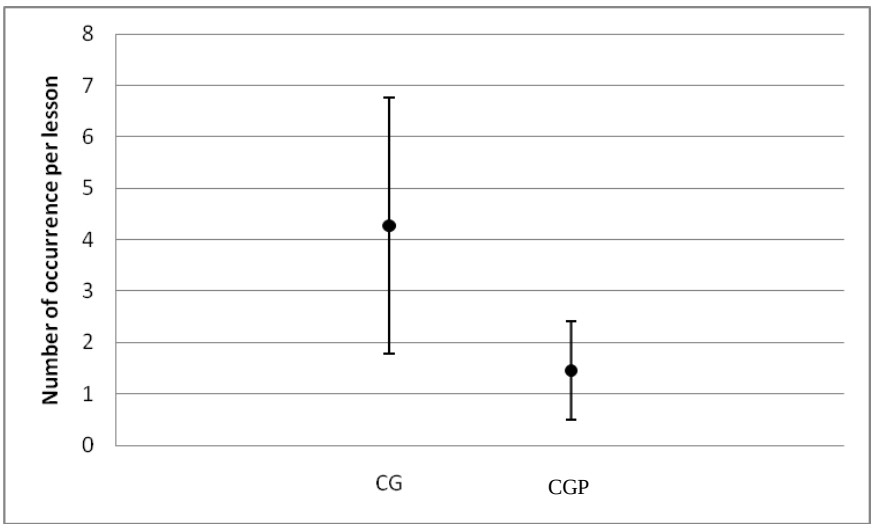


Figure 32. Confidence intervals for language switch

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of translation is located between 0,2 and 1,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,8); and in CGP – between 2,6 and 5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,8) (see Table 19 and Figure 33). The mean value of occurrence is 367% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

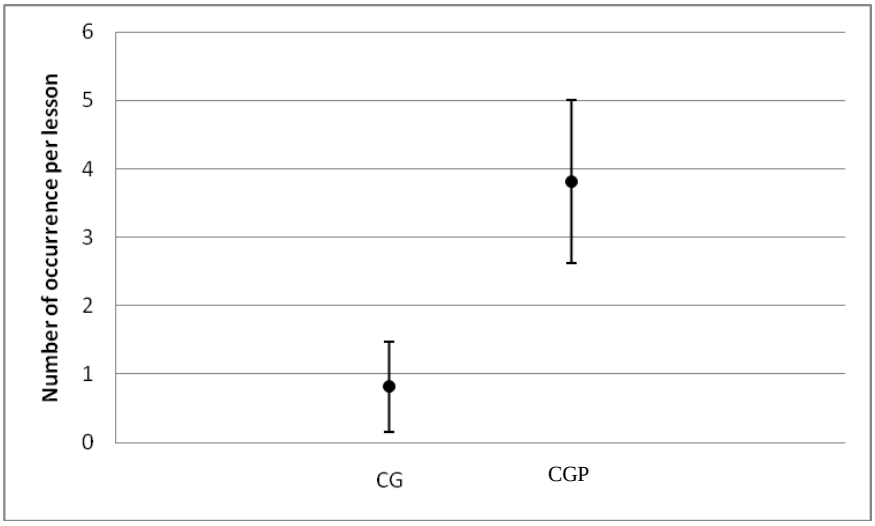


Figure 33. Confidence intervals for translation

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of interjections is located between 1,3 and 4,3 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2,8); and in CGP – between 0,1 and 1 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,5) (see Table 19 and Figure 34). The mean value of occurrence is 81% higher in CG than in CGP (see Table 20).

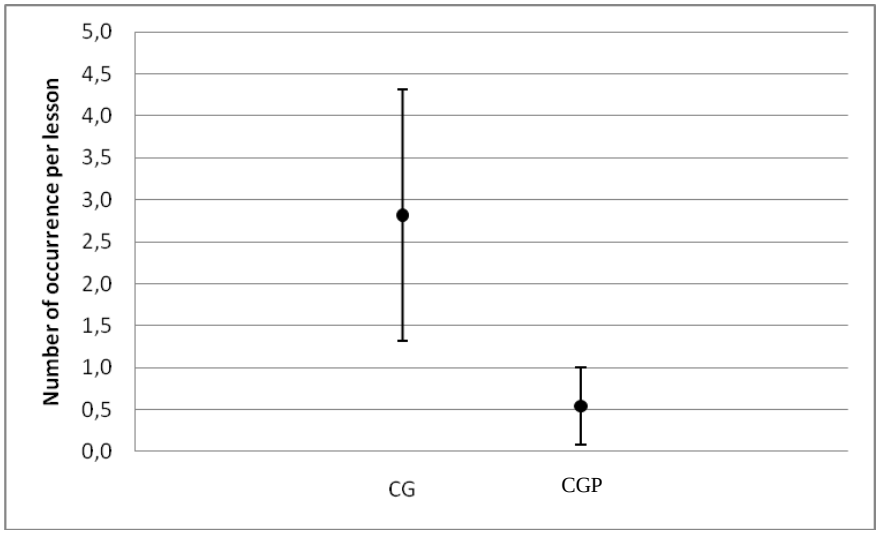


Figure 34. Confidence intervals for interjections

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of appeal for assistance is located between 0,4 and 1,5 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,9); and in CGP – between 2,9 and 6,9 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 4,9) (see Table 19 and Figure 35). The mean value of occurrence is 440% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

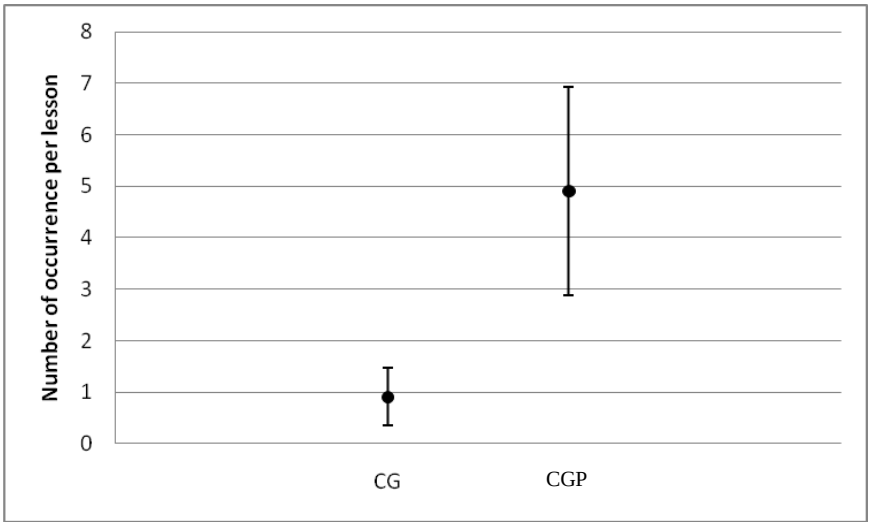


Figure 35. Confidence intervals for appeal for assistance

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of learner's prompting is located between 2,9 and 4,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 3,7); and in CGP – between 11,5 and 24,6 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 18,1) (see Table 19 and Figure 36). The mean value of occurrence is 385% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

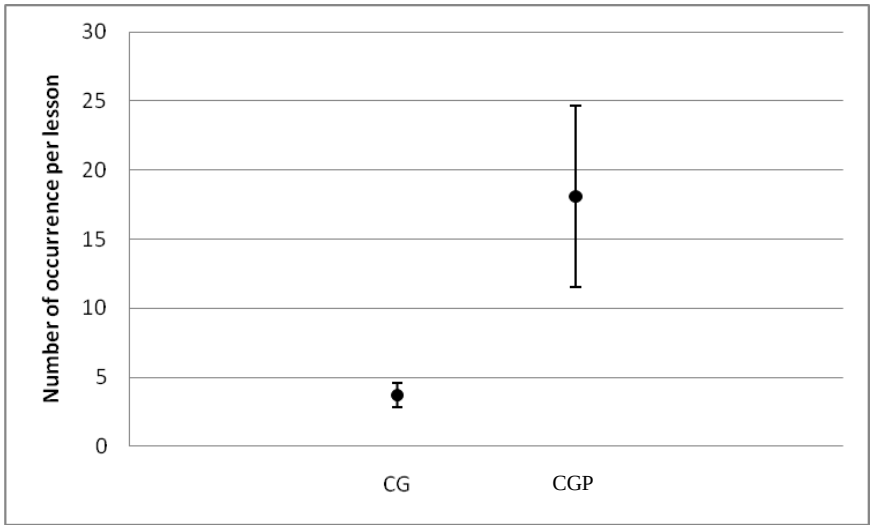


Figure 36. Confidence intervals for learner's prompting

In CG the confidence interval for mean value of occurrence of learner's repair is located between –0,1 and 0,8 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 0,4); and in CGP – between 1,8 and 4 (mean value of occurrence amounts to 2,9) (see Table 19 and Figure 37). The mean value of occurrence is 700% higher in CGP than in CG (see Table 20).

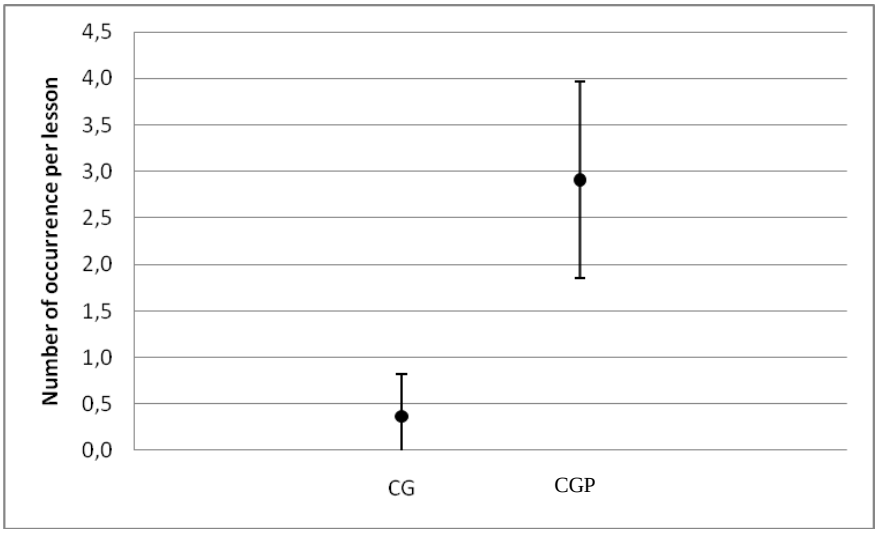


Figure 37. Confidence intervals for learner's repair

5.3. The results of the study proper (a qualitative analysis)

This section is going to present the results of the qualitative analysis in an attempt to provide examples of classroom discourse categories that were selected in the quantitative analysis (see section 5.2.2.) and that the use of the puppet had a significant impact on their employment by the subjects of the study. The intention of the author of the present dissertation was to choose the most salient and typical examples of classroom discourse occurring in the 11 transcribed lessons for each of the investigated groups. For convenience, the relevant excerpts taken from the transcripts will be grouped in three broad categories, i.e. turn-taking mechanism, communication and learning strategies and the phenomenon of assistance in discourse.

5.3.1. Turn-taking mechanism

The examples provided below illustrate the most salient features of turn-taking mechanism in our study:

Excerpt 1 (30.10. PG1)

```
1  T: Uwaga=
2  S6: =A czemu misiu nie umie polskiego?
3  T: Bo mieszka w Anglii.
4  P: I live in England.
5  S6: Możemy kiedyś go uczyć po polsku?
```

Excerpt 1 contains the example of a self-initiated turn taken in L1 by a child coded as S6 in line 2. The teacher's turn in line 1, where she wants to restore order, is taken over by S6 who, by asking a question concerning the puppet Teddy, brings about a temporary topic switch. Despite the answer provided for the question by the puppet itself in L2 in line 4, S6 self initiates another turn in L1 in line 5. The turns taken in L1 by the child signify his willingness to satisfy his curiosity concerning the figure of the puppet.

Excerpt 2 (13.11. PG1)

```
1  P: Great Weronika.
```

```
2  S4: Pani musi z nami mówić po angielsku.
3  P: How are you, how are you Michael?
4  S4: I'm fine thank you.
```

Excerpt 2 illustrates self-initiated turn taken in L1 by S4 in line 2, where the learner insists on being talked to in English by the teacher. In the preceding turn the puppet provides feedback for another learner and in line 3 continues asking S4 the same question it asked the other child.

Excerpt 3 (22.11. CG)

```
1  T: Very good Bartek, very good.
2  S4:              [Pani wszystkim mówi very good oprócz mnie.
```

In Excerpt 3, S4 self initiates the turn in L1 in line 2 by formulating an utterance overlapping with the teacher's turn (line 1), where she draws attention to the fact that the teacher provides positive feedback in the form of "very good" to every learner except for her. The self-initiated turn in L1 serves to make a pitch for the teacher's attention.

Excerpt 4 (25.10. PG2)

```
3  P: Who is it, Zosia?
4  S1: Papa bear.
5  P: And who is it?
6  S3:   [Papa bear, mama bear, color the picture.
7  S1: Mama bear.
8  P: Yes, and who is it?
```

Excerpt 4 shows a self-initiated turn taken in L2 by S3 in line 4, which also constitutes one of the learning strategies, namely, talk to self in L2, and an utterance in L2 overlapping with the puppet's turn. The children are involved in coloring pictures in their books and the puppet, in line 1, approaches S1 with a question concerning one of the figures in the picture. S1 provides the answer for the question in line 2, and the puppet continues asking the same question related to another picture. Meanwhile, S3, being involved in coloring, talks to himself in L2. His turn does not bring about a new topic, but constitutes discourse that is in the background of the ongoing classroom interaction.

Excerpt 5 (30.10. PG2)

```
1  P: Take your book and sit down.
2  S2: I have finished.
3  P: Very good, Nastka. Show me your book, show me your picture.
```

In Excerpt 5 the puppet's turn in line 1, where it gives some orders to a child who it was talking to in the preceding turns, is followed by a self-initiated turn taken in L2 by S2 in line 2, where the learner informs the puppet about the completion of the task. The puppet then, in line 3, provides a positive feedback for S2 and will further ask questions concerning her pictures in the book.

Excerpt 6 (30.10. PG2)

```
1  P: Ok, take your book and (…). Children, let's make a circle.
2  Sx: This is a circle!
3  P: Circle, come here, Zosia, look here. Circle.
```

In Excerpt 6 the learner coded as Sx demonstrates his/her ability to support the puppet in restoring the order in the classroom. The learner's self-initiated turn in L2 in line 2 illustrates the development of his/her interlanguage. He/she adopts the word "circle" from the puppet's preceding turn and inserts it in the structure "This is a …" he/she is already familiar with. Moreover, the learner adopts the puppet's manner of speaking.

Excerpt 7 (30.10. CG)

```
1  T: Good Morning.
2  C: Good morning.
3  Sx: Good morning. Good morning.
4  T: Circle, let's make a circle.
5  S6: Sit down, sit down, sit down, sit down.
```

Excerpt 7 also shows the learner's ability to assist, in this case, the teacher in restoring order in the classroom. In line 1, the teacher begins the lesson by greeting all the learners, which is followed by the learners' response in line 2. Then, the learner coded as Sx starts saying a welcoming poem in line 3. The teacher, in line 4, asks the learners to form a circle, and the learner coded as S6 assists her in doing so by self initiating a turn in L2 in line 5.

Excerpt 8 (08.11. PG1)

```
1  P: What's this? … What's this? … What do they do?
2  C: … (4)
3  T: O co sie teraz was Teddy pyta?
4  S3: (yyyy) na spacer.
5  T: No, ale tutaj.
6  S1: Nieee, co oni robią.
7  T: Tak, co oni robią, dobrze Justyna powiedziała.
8  S1: Mieszkają.
9  T&C: Live, live, live, live.
10 S2:          [Very good Justyna!!!!
11 Sx: Very good.
```

```
12 Sx: [Very good
13 P: [Very good Justyna!
14 Sx: [Very good
15 P: [Very good, very good=
16 S2: =Very good.
17 P: Sccc. Be quiet, be quiet.
18 T: Widzicie jak Justynka nam przetłumaczyła ładnie. A teraz
19 S2:                                          [Very good …
```

In Excerpt 8, the learners' ability to provide feedback for one another is demonstrated. The above stretch of discourse begins with the puppet's questions addressed to the group in line 1. Since they lack an answer in line 2, the teacher decides to check the learners' comprehension in line 3. The learner coded as S3 provides a tentative answer in L1 in line 4, which is followed by the teacher's hint in L1 in line 5 signifying that the answer is not correct. In line 6, the learner coded as S1 explains in L1 what the puppet asked about. Then, the teacher confirms in L1 that the learner is right and in the subsequent turn in line 8, S1 provides the answer to the puppet's question in L1. The teacher and the learners take a joint turn in line 9 by saying the word in L2. In line 10, the learner coded as S2 provides positive feedback for S1 by self initiating a turn in L2 and forming an utterance overlapping with the teacher's and the group's turn. His feedback resembles the feedback provided by the teacher and the puppet. This is followed by the repetition of S2's utterance by other learners and the puppet in subsequent turns.

Excerpt 9 (13.11. PG2)

```
1  S3: My name is Pani Ania! Odkleiła mi się naklejka!
```

Excerpt 9 is taken from a stretch of discourse, where the learners were involved in coloring pictures in their course books. The learner coded as S3 self-initiates a turn in L2 and in the next sentence switches to L1. By exclaiming "My name is Pani Ania", he wants to draw the teacher's attention instead of saying "Proszę Pani" in L1. His self-initiated turn in L2 constitutes a verbal attention getter in L2.

Excerpt 10 (13.11. CG)

```
1  T: Look here, children, look here.
2  S7: Look here.
3  T: Look here. OK.
4  S3: Sit down Maciej.
```

In Excerpt 10, the teacher, in line 1, attempts to draw the learners' attention to a picture, which is followed by a self-initiated turn in L2 taken by S7 in line 2, where he repeats the teacher's instruction. The last turn in this excerpt is self-initiated in L2 by S3, who tries to bring another learner named Maciej to order.

Excerpt 11 (26.02. CGP)

```
1  P: Are you happy?
2  S3: (yy) yes.
3  T: I'm. Yes, I'm.
4  S9: Are you happy? … (2) Are you happy?
```

In Excerpt 11, the puppet, in line 1, asks a question to the learner coded as S3, whose answer is incomplete, and the teacher, in line 3, repairs it. In line 4, the learner coded as S9, by self-initiating a turn in L2, addresses to the puppet the same question it asked in line 1.

Excerpt 12 (05.03. CGP)

```
1  P: Kuba ask Mateusz
2  S4: [Kuba ask Mateusz.
3  S1: How are you?
4  S8: I'm fine thank you.
5  S4: Mateusz ask Daniel.
6  S8: How are you?
```

Excerpt 12 illustrates the learner's ability to assume the puppet's role in nominating students' turns. The stretch of discourse begins with the puppet's nomination in line 1, which is overlapped with the learner coded as S4's turn, indicating that she already wants to take over the puppet's role in this respect. After the completion of the communicative exchange by the nominated learners (S1 and S8), S4 succeeds in assuming the puppet's role by nominating other learners to perform the assigned task.

Excerpt 13 (28.03. CGP)

```
1  P: Children, listen to me. Everybody is the winner. Do you like
   the-
2  T: oj Mateusz
3  S6: [Do you like the store? … do you like the store?
4  T: Do you like the play? Do you like the play? On się pyta …
   jeszcze Bartek się wszystkich zapyta.
5  P: Bartek ask everybody … do you like the play?
6  S6: Do you like the play?
```

Excerpt 13, similar to Excerpt 12, illustrates the learner's willingness to assume the puppet's role in addressing the question to the whole group after the game. It begins with the

puppet summing up the game and being about to ask the question "Do you like the play?", which is interrupted by the teacher's turn in line 2, where she reprimands one learner. In the subsequent turn (line 3), which is self-initiated by S6 and is overlapping with the teacher's turn, the question initiated by the puppet is readdressed by S6. However, S6 confuses the question concerning play with the question which was usually asked by the puppet or the teacher after listening to a story, namely, "Do you like the story?" and coins a word which resembles "story," i.e. store. His utterance is repaired by the teacher in line 4, who noticed that S6 was willing to ask all the learners in the way the puppet did it after the end of almost every activity. S6 is also encouraged to do that by the puppet in line 5, which is followed by his formulation of the correct question in line 6.

Excerpt 14 (08.11. CG)

```
1  T: Ja po angielsku się pytam. Is it hot or cold?
2  S4: Cold
3  S3: Ja wiem, ja wiem, ja wiem!
```

Excerpt 14 contains an example of another-learner initiated turn in L1 taken by S3 in line 3. The stretch of discourse begins with the teacher's question concerning a picture and the learner coded as S4 provides the answer to the question in L2 (line 2). S3 initiates the turn in L1 in reaction to the preceding learner's turn, attempting to draw the teacher's attention to the fact that he knows the answer to the question.

Excerpt 15 (15.11. CG)

```
1  T: This porridge is just right.
2  C: Just right!
3  S4: Yes!
4  S9: Pani Ania.
5  S4: Yes, I do, Pani Ania.
```

Excerpt 15 begins with the teacher's statement in line 1, which is followed by the learners acting in chorus and repeating the adjective from the teacher's preceding turn. S4, in line 3, provides confirmation to the teacher's statement, in reaction to which S9 initiates a turn in L1 in line 4 by adding "pani Ania". Her turn constitutes another-learner initiated turn in L1, which is followed by another-learner initiated turn in L2 taken by S4 in line 5, who attempts to combine the two preceding learners' turns in one utterance.

Excerpt 16 (15.11. CG)

```
1  T: I'm waiting for you. Be quiet. Be quiet.
2  S3: Daniel sit down.
3  S4: Now, let's stop.
```

In Excerpt 16 the teacher tries to restore order in the classroom. In line 2, the learner coded as S3 self initiates a turn in L2 by calling to order another learner, which is followed by another-learner initiated turn taken in L2 by S4 in line 3, who employs one of the learning strategies, i.e. memorization, as she wants to calm the group down by using the formula from one of the poems practiced during the lessons.

Excerpt 17 (20.11. PG2)

```
1  T: Yes, Dawid. Very good. Show me the picture. Pokazujesz Tedde-
   mu.
2  P: Children=
3  S3: =Moge sam siebie zapytać
4  P: Baby Bear is small. Small. Look here, look here. (…) Small,
   baby bear is small. Mateusz.
5  S3: This is soft or hard?
6  S3: (.hh) soft.
7  P: What's this? What is it?
8  T: On się pyta co to jest?
9  P: What's this?
10 S3: Soft.
11 T: A … what's this? A co to jest?
12 P: Is it a chair?
13 S3: Tak. (yy) yes.
14 P: Yes, this is a chair. Show me the picture.
15 S3: Pokaż mi swój obrazek.
16 T: Dobrze. Mateusz, very good.
```

Excerpt 17 shows a special example of another-learner initiated turn in L2, where the learner coded as S3 talks in L2 with himself. It illustrates the interaction during one of the communicative games. The puppet's turn in line 2 is taken over by S3 who formulates a latched utterance in L1 in line 3 asking whether he can ask a question to himself. In line 4, the puppet nominates S3 to perform the communicative exchange, which is illustrated in lines 5 and 6. S3 acts as if there were two learners participating in the exchange; therefore we treat his turn in line 6 as a special case of another-learner initiated turn in L2. The puppet, in the subsequent turn, asks him a question, which is translated by the teacher into L1 in line 8, and repeated in L2 by the puppet in line 9. S3 provides the same answer as he did in line 6, which is not correct. The teacher repeats the question in line 11, and the puppet asks another question in line 12, which eventually receives an affirmative answer from S3 in line 13. The puppet confirms that his answer is correct and asks him to show the picture illustrating

the object in question. This is translated by the learner into L1 and followed by the teacher's positive feedback provided both in L1 and L2.

Excerpt 18 (30.10. PG1)

```
1  P: What's this? What's this?
2  S3: Krzesło.
3  T: A jak jest krzesło po angielsku?
4  S2: This is (yyy) …
5  S6: Chair! Chair!
6  T: This is a chair.
```

The majority of another-learner initiated turns in L2 is constituted by learner's prompting. Excerpt 18 illustrates such a case. In line 1, the puppet addresses the question to the whole group, which is answered in L1 by S3. In line 3, the teacher tries to elicit the answer in L2. The endeavor is undertaken by S2, who initiates a response in L2 followed, however, by a hesitation noise and a pause indicating his indirect appeal for assistance. Support is provided in line 5 by S6 prompting S2. The excerpt finishes with the teacher's confirmation of the learner's answer.

Excerpt 19 (25.10. PG2)

```
1  M: Amadeusz, Amadeusz. Here you are.
2  S3:          [Look here!
3  T: Co mówisz?
4  S6:   [Thank you
5  S3: Look here.
```

Excerpt 19 illustrates the example of the learner's utterance overlapping with the teacher's or the puppet's turn. The puppet distributing course books to the learners constitutes the context of the excerpt. In line 1, the puppet hands out the course book to one learner and in the subsequent line the learner coded as S3 self-initiates the turn in L2 by formulating an utterance overlapping with the puppet's turn. His turn constitutes the example of talk to self in L2; it does not disrupt the flow of the interaction between the puppet, teacher and S6. In line 4, the teacher tries to elicit the answer from S6, which is followed by formulating an overlapping utterance in L2 by the nominated learner. The stretch of discourse finishes with a turn self initiated by S3 in L2, which again exemplifies talk to self in L2.

Excerpt 20 (25.10. PG2)

```
1  S8: Jak jest stado koni?
2  T: Horses, Horses
3  C:    [Horses. Horses
4  P: Hello Kuba, hello. Show me your picture.
5  T: Kolorujecie. Teddy zaraz do każdego podejdzie.
6  P: Show me your picture.
7  T: On mówi-
8  S3: Jak to było to stado koni, bo zapomniałem.
9  T: Horses, Horses
10 C:          [Horses.
11 T: On sie pyta: pokaż mi swój obrazek, Kuba.
12 S3:                          [Horses.
13 P: Who is it, Kuba?
14 S3: [Horses
15 T: Kuba. Who is it?
16 S3: [Horses, horses
```

Excerpt 20 begins with S8 initiating a turn in L1 formulated as an appeal for assistance. The teacher, in line 2, provides the word in L2, which is followed by the whole group repeating the word in the utterance overlapping with the teacher's turn. In line 4, the puppet approaches one learner while the rest of the group is involved in coloring pictures. The excerpt illustrates the learner coded as S3 talking to himself in L2 in the form of utterances overlapping with the teacher's or the puppet's turns (line 12, 14 and 16). He interrupts the teacher's turn in line 8 by asking for assistance. After the provision of the word "horses" by the teacher, the whole group again repeats it in chorus in line 10. The S3's discussed overlapping utterances constitute the language in the background of the interaction between the teacher, the puppet and another learner.

Excerpt 21 (25.10. PG2)

```
1  P: Make them colorful. Ok, Kuba. Hello Dawid. Hello! Dawid show
   me your picture, show me.
2  T: Pokaż mi swój obrazek.
3  S3:   [Show me your picture. ((whispering))
4  P: Who is it?
5  S3: [Show me, show me. ((whispering, talk to himself))
6  S7: … (3)
7  T: No śmialo.
8  S7: Papa bear.
9  S3: [Show me your picture
10 P: Papa bear, this is papa bear. And who is it?
11 S3:                          [show me, show me, show me
12 S7: Mama bear.
13 S3: [Show me
14 P: This is Mama bear.
15 S3: [Show me.
16 P: Very good Dawid, very good. And who is it=
17 S3: =A! ... show me to znaczy że …
18 T: sccscsc ((attempting to calm the child down))
```

Excerpt 21 also contains the example of the learner's utterances in L2 overlapping with the teacher's, the puppet's or another learner's turn. In line 1, the puppet approaches one learner with the instruction, which is translated into L1 by the teacher in line 2. Meanwhile, the learner coded as S3 talks to himself in L2 using the instruction uttered by the puppet in line 1, and his talk overlaps with the teacher's preceding turn. These overlapping utterances (lines 3, 5, 9, 11, 13 and 15) constitute the background to the ongoing interaction between the teacher, the puppet and S7. The excerpt finishes with a latched utterance initiated by S3 in L1, whose aim is to boast about knowing the meaning of the instruction "show me" and consequently to draw the teacher's attention to this fact. Yet, S3's endeavor is suppressed by the teacher in line 18.

Excerpt 22 (21.03. CGP)

((Teddy reads the story))

```
1  P: Run, run as fast as you can
2  S6:               [This is a fox.
3  P: You can't catch me.
4  S6:    [This is a fox.
5  P: Very good. I'm the gingerbreadman.
6  S7:         [This is a fox.
7  S6: Potem by chciał zjeść … this is a fox!
```

Excerpt 22 shows the learners' utterances formulated in L2 and overlapping with the puppet's turns. In line 2, 4 and 6 we can see examples of such turns taken by S6 and S7 in response to a story read by the puppet. Their utterances imply their insistence on informing the rest of the group that it is a fox that eats the gingerbreadman at the end of the story. The puppet, in line 5, provides positive feedback for S6 and continues reading the story. In line 6, S7 repeats what S6 have said in line 2 and 4, which is followed by S6's turn, where he switches between L1 and L2, being still determined to say who eats the gingerbreadman in the story.

Excerpt 23 (02.11. PG1)

```
1  P: And how are you Weronika? How are you today?
2  S7: (mmm) …
3  T: Co odpowiadamy Teddemu jak się was pyta?
4  S2:   [Hello Teddy ((whispering))
5  S5:         [Hello Teddy. ((whispering))
6  S7: Hello Teddy.
7  P: Hello Weronika.
```

Excerpt 23 illustrates the learner's utterance in L2 overlapping with another learner's turn (line 5). The stretch of discourse begins with the puppet's turn where it greets the learner coded as S7 with the question "How are you?". In line 2, the learner (S7) responds to the question with a hesitation noise and a pause, which is followed by the teacher's attempt to elicit the answer from the learners. In the subsequent turn, in line 4, S2 prompts S7 with an answer to Teddy's question by formulating the utterance in L2 overlapping with the teacher's turn. The learner's prompting is also provided by S5, whose utterance overlaps with S2's turn. In the subsequent turn, S7 incorporates peer assistance into her answer to the puppet's question.

Excerpt 24 (02.11. PG2)

```
1  P: What do they do here? What do they do?
2  S3: Bawią si-!
3  Sx:   [Live.
```

Excerpt 24 also illustrates the learner's utterance in L2 overlapping with another learner's turn. The puppet asks the question concerning the picture, which is answered by S3 in L1 in line 2. The learner coded as Sx provides the answer in L2, which overlaps with the S3's preceding turn.

Excerpt 25 (30.10. PG1)

```
1  P: Wait for me, children. Kacper come here, come here.
2  S6: Yes.
3  P: Wait for me=
4  S6: =Yes Teddy.
5  P: Wait for me.
```

Excerpt 25 contains the example of a latched utterance in L2 produced by the learner coded as S6 right after the puppet's turn (line 4). The puppet, in line 1, attempts to restore order in the classroom, which receives an affirmative response from S6 in line 2. The puppet's turn in line 3, where it repeats the instruction, is taken over by S6, who again responds to the instruction in line 4.

Excerpt 26 (30.10. PG2)

```
1  T: A z czym jest ta miska?
2  C: Z owsianka.
3  T: Z owsianka, jak jest=
4  S1: =porridge!
5  C: Porridge.
6  P: Children=
```

```
7  S9: =This is a po- … This is a porridge!
```

Excerpt 26 presents two examples of latched utterances in L2 produced by S1 and S9, in lines 4 and 7, respectively, right after the teacher's and the puppet's turns. First, the teacher addresses the question in L1 to the group, which receives the group's answer in L1. In line 3, the teacher attempts to elicit the word "owsianka" in L2 from the learners, but her turn is taken over by S1, who provides the answer to the question the teacher was about to ask. In line 5, the word is repeated by the whole group. Then, the puppet wants to proceed to another question (line 6), but did not manage to do that as its turn is taken over by S9 in line 7, who provides the whole sentence with the word questioned in this excerpt.

Excerpt 27 (30.10. PG2)

```
1  P: What's this?
2  S8: (yy)
3  T: This is=
4  S8: =woods!
5  P: Woods, very good Zuzia. Now Anastazja. Have you finished?
```

In Excerpt 27, the puppet asks S8 a question in line 1, which is responded to with a hesitation noise by the learner. The teacher's turn in line 3, where she decides to prompt S8, is taken over by the learner in line 4. S8 provides the answer to the puppet's question producing latched utterance in L2 right after the teacher's turn. The whole excerpt finishes with the puppet's positive feedback and asking the subsequent learner another question.

Excerpt 28 (02.11. PG1)

```
1  P: Very good children.
2  T: Ja się zapytam Teddego=
3  S7: =Jeszcze domek!
```

In Excerpt 28, the learner coded as S7 produces a latched utterance in L1 right after the teacher's turn, attempting to draw the teacher's attention to the fact that there is one more object in the picture to be discussed.

Excerpt 29 (20.11. PG2)

```
1  P: Yes, Anastazja. Very good. Children, (…) This=
2  S3: =Children, children!
3  P: Children! Children! This porridge is cold. Cold, cold. (…)
   This porridge is cold. Ok, now Kuba.
```

Excerpt 29 illustrates latched utterance produced in L2 by S3 right after the puppet's turn (line 2), where it first provides positive feedback for one learner and then proceeds to drawing other learners' attention. This is interrupted by S3 who assumes the puppet's role in calling the learners by exclaiming "Children, Children". In line 3, the puppet continues its instruction and nominates another learner to respond.

Excerpt 30 (28.02. CGP)

```
1  P: Very good children. Now=
2  S7: =let's play.
```

Excerpt 30 illustrates the learner's ability to take over the puppet's turn and complete the instruction in L2, producing a latched utterance.

Excerpt 31 (28.03. CGP)

```
1  P: Now a new play.
2  T: Bawimy się w taką zabawę że pytamy kto zjadł piernikowego lu-
   dzika gorącego i smacznego=
3  S6: =(.hh) This is a fox!
4  P: Who eats the Gingerbreadman hot and yummy?=
5  S7: =This is a fox!
```

In Excerpt 31, the learners coded as S6 and S7 produce latched utterances in L2 in lines 3 and 5, right after the teacher's and the puppet's turns, respectively. The whole stretch begins with the introduction of a new play by the puppet in line 1, which is further explained by the teacher in L1. S6 immediately responds to the teacher's instruction in L2 and informs the groups who eats the gingerbreadman in the story. His exclamation and audible inbreath at the beginning of the utterance suggest great excitement and involvement in the classroom discourse. In line 4, the puppet's turn, where it begins the play, is taken over by S7, who repeats what S6 said in line 3.

Excerpt 32 (13.11. PG1)

```
1  P: What's this? Children, look here. What's this?
2  S9: (yyy) …
3  P: What's this?
4  S9: Jumping=
5  S6: =live, live.
```

Excerpt 32 illustrates the example of a latched utterance in L2 produced by S6 right after another learner's turn (lines 4 and 5). It begins with the puppet's question addressed to the whole group in line 1, which is responded to by a hesitation noise by S9 in line 2. The pup-

pet readdresses the question in line 3, which is answered first, although incorrectly, by S9, in line 4, and then responded to appropriately by S6 in line 5, who takes over the turn belonging to S9.

Excerpt 33 (13.11. PG2)

```
1  P: Ok, is it hard or soft?
2  S8: Jak to się mówiło, bo zapomniałam?=
3  S3: =Hard!
```

In Excerpt 33, the puppet addresses the question to S8 in line 1, which is responded to by an appeal for assistance. The learner coded as S3 immediately reacts to S8's appeal in line 3 and provides the right answer, producing a latched utterance in L2 right after another learner's turn (S8).

Excerpt 34 (07.03. CGP)

```
1  P: Very good Bartek, very good Matthew. Bartek ask Wiktoria.
2  S6: … fine thank-=
3  S4: =How are you?
4  Sx: [How are you?
5  S6: How are you?
```

In Excerpt 34, the puppet first provides positive feedback for two learners and then nominates two other learners to perform the communicative exchange. In line 2, S6 hesitantly begins the exchange. His inappropriate use of the expression meets with the learner coded as S4's reaction and prompt, which results in the latched utterance in L2 produced right after another learner's turn (S6). In line 4, we observe that there is another learner coded as Sx, who prompts S6, and whose utterance overlaps with S4's prompting. The excerpt finishes with S6 incorporating the learner's assistance into his utterance in line 5.

5.3.2. Learning and communication strategies

Below we present examples of learning and communication strategies.

5.3.2.1. Repetition

Excerpt 35 (25.10. PG1)

```
1  P: Mama bear. Who is it, Weronika?
2  S7: … (5)
3  P: Who is it Weronika?
4  S7: Who is it?
5  T: No on się pyta kto to jest? podpowiedzieć Ci?
6  S9:                          [Baby bear ((whispering))
7  S7: Baby bear.
```

In Excerpt 35 the puppet asks the learner coded as S7 a question, which is responded to by silence in line 2. The puppet in line 3 readdresses the question, which is repeated by S7 in line 4. The repetition blocks communication, as a result of which the teacher resorts to the translation of the puppet's question into L1. In line 6, the learner coded as S9 prompts S7, producing the utterance in L2 overlapping with the teacher's turn in line 5. The excerpt finishes with S7 incorporating another learner's assistance into her utterance.

Excerpt 36 (25.10. CG)

```
1  T: Yes, this is mama bear. And who is it? Who is it?
2  S2: Who is it?
3  T: Who is it? Kto to jest ja się pytam. This is=
4  S2: =This is a bew=
5  T: =This is a=
6  S2: =a bear.
```

Excerpt 36 begins with the teacher's question concerning the picture, which is responded to by S2 with its repetition in line 2. The teacher, then, repeats the question in L2, translates it into L1 and attempts to prompt the learner in line 3. The teacher's turn is taken over by S2 in line 4, where he formulates word coinage phonetically resembling the word "bear" in question. The teacher again attempts to prompt the learner, which finishes in the successful takeover of the turn and providing a correct answer by S2 in line 6.

5.3.2.2. Memorization

Excerpt 37 (30.10. CG)

```
1  T: I'm fine thank you. Głośno. How are you Bartek?
2  S9: I'm fine thank you.
3  S6: Good morning …
4  T: Nie good morning. Mowisz: I'm fine thank you.
5  S6: I'm fine thank you.
```

Excerpt 37 illustrates the use of memorization by the learner coded as S6 in line 3. It begins with the teacher's question in line 1 addressed to S6, which is immediately answered by S9 in line 2. S6 does not react to the assistance provided by S9 and starts reciting a welcoming poem. The teacher, in line 4, corrects his utterance and provides the right answer to the question. In line 5, S6 repeats the right answer after the teacher.

Excerpt 38 (30.10. CG)

```
1  T: Very good. Now children I have a play for you. Mateusz! A
   play for you. Daniel! Daniel! A play. Zabawa. Yes or no? This
   is Mama bear.
2  S6: This is Papa bear=
3  S7: =No more!
4  S3: No …
5  T: No.
```

Excerpt 38 begins with the teacher's introduction of a new play and her attempt to call some learners to order. The teacher shows a picture to the learners and says a sentence which is false. The learners' task is to correct the teacher and provide a sentence which is true about the picture. This is done by S6 in line 2, whose turn is taken over by S7 in line 3, where he uses the strategy of memorization, trying to deny the teacher's false statement, and utters a phrase from one of the songs sung in the lessons, which does not mean a denial, but implies the cessation of an action practiced for a certain period of time.

Excerpt 39 (20.11. CG)

```
1  T: Mateusz, Mama bear is big. Daniel, Daniel, is it big or
   small?
2  S10: No more.
3  T: No. Is it soft or hard?
4  S10: No.
```

Likewise in Excerpt 38, Excerpt 39 presents the same example of memorization strategy applied by S10 in line 2, who wants to provide a negative answer to the teacher's question in line 1. As in the previous excerpt, the learner misapplies the phrase "No more".

Excerpt 40 (02.04. CGP)

```
1  S5: And you Jacob?
2  S2: … (4)
3  S5: I like
4  S2: I like sleeping …
5  C: i … i …
6  S2: and … and sitting.
7  P: Jacob ask Lukas, and you Lukas?
8  S8: … (4) jak jest lubię mieszkać w domku? ((whispering))
9  C: I like living, I like living ((reciting a part of a poem))
```

In Excerpt 40 the learners ask each other what they like doing. They are provided with several pictures of the activities, out of which they are supposed to choose two. The stretch of discourse begins with S5 asking what S2 likes doing, which is responded to with silence by S2 in line 2. S5 prompts S2 in line 3, which is followed by S2's attempt to provide the answer in line 4. S2's pause at the end of his utterance indicates an indirect appeal for assistance, which is immediately responded to by the whole group acting in chorus and prompting S2 in L1 in line 5. In line 6, S2 manages to repair and complete his utterance. The puppet, in line 7, nominates the two other learners to perform the communicative exchange. S8 begins his turn with a pause followed by an appeal for assistance directed to the teacher in line 8, which is reacted to by the whole group, again acting in chorus, and prompting S8 applying the phrase from one of the poems, which exemplifies the strategy of memorization in this case (line 9).

5.3.2.3. Verbal attention getter in L1

Excerpt 41 (30.10. PG1)

```
1  T: Hello Justyna, how are you?
2  S1: I'm, I'm …
3  T: Fine, thank you.
4  S1: [fine, thank you.
5  P: Very good!
6  S9: Proszę panią, a ja dodam jeszcze do tego Teddy.
7  P:       [Hello Kacper.
8  T: Proszę?
9  S9: Ja dodam jeszcze do tego Teddy.
10 T: Dobrze.
```

Excerpt 41 presents the strategy of verbal attention getter in L1 applied by S9 in line 6 and 9. The learner wants to draw the teacher's attention and boast of her competence in L2. Her aim is to provide an addition to another learner's utterance so that it looks as follows: "I'm fine, thank you Teddy".

Excerpt 42 (02.11. PG2)

```
1  S3: Proszę pani, proszę pani, …, circle!
2  T: O Mateusz, słuchajcie co mówi Mateusz?
3  S8: Circle.
4  T: Żeby zrobić kółko. Brawo Mateusz!
5  S8: Ja to mówiłam circle, a Mati po mnie powtórzył.
6  T: Let's make a circle.
```

Excerpt 42 presents the beginning of the lesson and the strategy of verbal attention getter in L1 applied by S3 and S8 in line 1 and 5, respectively. The two learners compete for the teacher's attention, as a result of which the classroom discourse becomes more competitive.

5.3.2.4. Coinage

Excerpt 43 (25.10. PG2)

```
1  S3: What's your mauth? What's your mauth?
2  Sx: What's your name? ((whispering))
3  S3: What's your name?
4  T: My name is Pani Ania. And what's your name? What's your
   name?
5  S3: My name is Mateusz.
6  P: OK. Mateusz, nice to meet you. Nice to meet you. And
   what's your name?
```

Excerpt 43 presents the example of a word coinage applied by S3 in line 1, attempting to ask the teacher what her name is. The learner's utterance is repaired by another learner coded as Sx in line 2. S3 repeats the question incorporating Sx's assistance and the teacher provides the answer in line 4, and responds with the same question addressed to S3. The excerpt finishes with the puppet's response to S3's turn.

Excerpt 44 (30.10. PG2)

```
1  P: And what's this?
2  S3: Pet.
3  P: This is a bed. Yes, this is a bed. And what's this?
4  S3: Baby bear.
```

In Excerpt 44, S3 provides the answer to the puppet's question in line 2, creating a word coinage that is phonetically similar to the word in question, i.e. "bed". The puppet, in line 3, corrects the learner's answer and proceeds to the next question.

Excerpt 45 (30.10. CG)

```
1  T: what's this?
2  S9:   [ hou, hou hou.
3  S3: This is a hou … (yyy) woods.
4  T: This is woods. Very good.
```

In Excerpt 45, the learner provides the anticipatory answer to the teacher's question, formulating an utterance overlapping with the teacher's turn (line 2). Her answer is incorrect and contains a word coinage resembling the word "house" that is not in question. S3 also attempts to answer the teacher's question in line 3, adopting, first, the word coinage from the preceding learner's turn and, after a short pause and hesitation noise, being able to correct himself by providing the right answer, which is confirmed by the teacher in line 4.

Excerpt 46 (02.11. PG1)

```
1  P: Now children, what does Go-=
2  S6: =Ryn, ryn.
```

Excerpt 46 illustrates the anticipatory answer provided by S6 to the puppet's question, which results in a latched utterance. S6 creates a word coinage that phonetically resembles the word in question.

Excerpt 47 (02.11. PG1)

```
1  T: A co robiły misie w domku? … (3)
2  S5: Mieszkaly.
3  T: Mieszkały, dobrze Zosia podpowiada=
4  S6: =Velve?
5  T: Live.
```

Excerpt 47 contains the example of a word coinage uttered by S6 in line 4 in an attempt to answer the teacher's question. The teacher, in line 3, is about to elicit the answer in L2 from the learners, but S6, after positive feedback provided for S5 by the teacher, takes over her turn in line 4. The excerpt finishes in the provision of the right answer by the teacher herself. Here again, the word coinage in line 4 phonetically resembles the word in question.

Excerpt 48 (22.11. CG)

```
1  T: Bartek K., do you like the song?
```

```
2  S6: Teletubi
3  T: Proszę?
4  S6: Teletubi.
5  T: A little bit, a little bit. Nie teletubi. Tylko a little bit.
```

Excerpt 48 also presents the example of a word coinage that is phonetically similar to the word in question. In line 2, S6, attempting to answer the teacher's question, creates a word coinage, which is followed by the teacher's clarification request formulated in L1. S6 repeats the coinage in line 4, which is corrected by the teacher in line 5.

Excerpt 49 (07.03. CGP)

```
1  S4: Touch your nose.
2  P: Ok, Oliwia.
3  S9: touch your … ((pointing to knees))
4  S6: Touch your eas
5  T:    [co Bartek podpowiada?
6  S6: touch your eas.
7  S4: knees.
```

In Excerpt 49, the learners' task is to give instructions to the puppet in L2 to touch the parts of the body they have been practicing in the previous lessons. In line 2, the puppet nominates the learner coded as S9 to perform the task. S9 resorts to gesture not knowing the name of the parts of the body she wants to use in her instruction. The learner coded as S6 prompts S9 in line 4, creating a word coinage that is phonetically similar to the word in question. The teacher, in the question overlapping with S6's turn in line 5, requests clarification, not being sure what S6 has said. In line 6, S6 repeats his utterance containing the coinage, which is subsequently corrected by S4 in line 7.

5.3.2.5. Language switch

Excerpt 50 (25.10. CG)

```
1  T: This is mama bear. And who is it?
2  S7: This is dziecko bear.
3  T: Baby bear, mówimy, baby bear.
```

In Excerpt 50, the learner coded as S7 switches between L1 and L2 while providing the answer to the teacher's question (line 2). His answer is corrected by the teacher in line 3.

Excerpt 51 (30.10. PG1)

```
1  T: Wszyscy mówimy, this is a house. Pokazujemy na obrazek. This
   is a house, this is a house.
2  P: Children, I don't know.
3  T: On wam mówi-
4  S6: [This is a las.
5  C: woods, woods.
6  S6:   [This is a woods.
```

In Excerpt 51, the learners' task is to tell the puppet what is in the picture. The puppet pretends not to know what is in it. In line 4, the learner coded as S6 switches between L2 and L1 while providing the answer, and his utterance overlaps with the teacher's turn in the preceding line. The group reacts immediately and provides the right word in L2 in line 5, which is incorporated in the overlapping utterance produced by S6 in line 6.

Excerpt 52 (02.11. PG1)

```
1  T: A ty Kacper, dlaczego lubisz?
2  S3: Bo … (4)
3  T: No dlaczego?
4  S3: … (3)
5  T: No śmiało, powiedz Teddemu, my to przetłumaczymy na angiel-
   ski=
6  S6: =Ja wiem co on chciał powiedzieć, że on jest bardzo fajny
   (yyy), że … call the doctor … on bardzo lubi.
```

Excerpt 52 presents the teacher's attempt to encourage the learner coded as S3 to explain why he likes the poem. The learner responds with silence in lines 2 and 4, which is followed by the teacher's further encouragement (line 5). The teacher's turn is taken over by the learner coded S6, who switches between L1, L2 and L1 in his explanation why S3 likes the poem.

Excerpt 53 (06.11. CG)

```
1  T: Baby bear, dobrze Weronika. Baby bear. This is baby bear.
   Very good, children. What's this?
2  S4: (yyy) to jest … bed!
3  S9: Bed.
```

In Excerpt 53, the learner coded as S4 hesitantly answers the teacher's question, switching between L1 and L2 (line 2), which is followed by the learner coded as S9's repetition of the word in question.

Excerpt 54 (08.11. CG)

```
1  T: What does baby bear do?
2  S3: (yyy) porridge?! … Je porridge.
```

In Excerpt 54, the learner coded as S3 switches between L1 and L2 while providing the answer to the teacher's question.

Excerpt 55 (22.11. PG1)

```
1  P: Zosia, do you remember the song about hickory dickory duck?
2  S5: Yes, I do.
3  P: Very good Zosia. Michael, do you remember the song about
   hickory dickory dock?
4  S4: (mm) Yes, I no i Yes, I do.
5  T: Yes, I do? A czemu dwa razy mowisz?
6  S4: Bo mi jest wszystko jedno.
7  T: Bo to wszystko … Oh … A ja powiem Teddemu. It doesn't matter
   to Michael. Jest wszystko jedno Michaelowi, powiedziałam Tedde-
   mu. A Teddy mówi …
8  P: I'm sad. I'm sad.
```

Excerpt 55 contains an interesting example of a language switch done by the learner coded as S4 in line 4, where he answers the puppet's question concerning the song. He begins his turn with a hesitation noise and then formulates a structure that illustrates the development of his interlanguage, which is followed by his switching into L1 and then again into L2. The teacher does not infer the meaning of his utterance at first and requests clarification for why he said "Yes, I do" twice (line 5). The learner expresses his indifferent attitude towards the task and explains that it does not matter to him (line 6). In the subsequent turn, the teacher shows his disappointment and translates the learner's utterance into L2, which is followed by the puppet expressing its disappointment, too.

Excerpt 56 (22.11 CG)

```
1  T: Oliwia, ask Bartek J.
2  S9: Czy to jest big czy small?
3  S2: Small.
4  S9: Czy to jest … (4) … (mmm) baby bear?
5  S2: No.
```

Excerpt 56 shows that the learners applied language switch in the communicative exchanges with one another. In this case, the learner coded as S9 switches between the two languages in lines 2 and 4, asking another learner (S2) questions so as to guess what is in the picture.

5.3.2.6. Translation

The excerpts provided below present examples of the learners translating into L1 the puppet's positive feedback provided for another learner (see Excerpt 57, line 3), its instructions directed to the whole group or particular learners (see Excerpt 58, line 6; Excerpt 61, line 2; Excerpt 62, line 3; Excerpt 63, line 2 and Excerpt 66, line 2), questions addressed to the group (see Excerpt 59, line 2; Excerpt 64, line 2 and Excerpt 65, line 2) and reprimands (see Excerpt 60, line 2).

Excerpt 57 (25.10. PG1)

```
1  T: A teraz Teddy będzie po kolei do każdego podchodził i będzie
   patrzył jak dzieci kolorują.
2  P: Łukasz, very nice, very good. Who is it, Łukasz?
3  S9:                          [Bardzo dobrze, Łukasz.
```

Excerpt 58 (30.10. PG2)

```
1  P: Your English is perfect!
2  T: Twój angielski jest perfekcyjny. Super.
3  P: Your English is perfect. OK? Take your book.
4  T: Weź swoją ksiażkę
5  P: and sit down, sit down.
6  S3: To znaczy, że usiądź.
7  T: Tak. A take your book, to weź swoją książkę.
8  S9: Take your book, Take your book.
```

Excerpt 59 (02.11. PG2)

```
1  P: How are you today?
2  S1: Jak się macie?
3  T: Dobrze Zosia, brawo!
```

Excerpt 60 (02.11. PG2)

```
1  P: You are naughty today.
2  S3: Jesteś niegrzeczny.
3  T: No jesteś niegrzeczny.
4  P: You are naughty.
5  S3: [you are naughty, you are naughty.
```

Excerpt 61 (06.11. PG1)

```
1  T: Good morning. Good morning children. Sit down. Let's make a
   circle.
2  S6: Siadamy w kółko.
```

Excerpt 62 (15.11. PG2)

```
1  S7: How are you?
2  P: I’m fine thank you. Now children, look here.
3  S3: Patrzcie tutaj!
4  T: Patrzcie tutaj, dobrze Mateusz tłumaczysz.
5  P: What’s this?
```

Excerpt 63 (15.11. PG2)

```
1  P: We play hot and cold. We play hot and cold.
2  S3: Zabawmy się w ciepło i zimno.
3  T: Bardzo dobrze Mateusz, bawimy się w ciepło i zimno.
```

Excerpt 64 (05.03. CGP)

```
1  P: Children, do you like the song?=
2  S7: =Czy lubicie?
3  P: Wiktoria, do you like the song?
4  S4: (yy) Yes, I do.
```

Excerpt 65 (07.03. CGP)

```
1  P: Ok. Stand up. … (3) Do you remember the song Head and Shoul-
   ders?=
2  S7: =Czy pamiętacie?
3  P: Mathew.
4  S8: Yes, I do.
```

Excerpt 66 (02.04. CGP)

```
1  P: I want to see a circle.
2  S4: Chcę zobaczyć żeby było ładne kółko.
3  P: How are you Kuba, How are you?
4  S3: … (5) I’m happy.
```

5.3.3. The phenomenon of assistance

The following subsections will illustrate the phenomenon of assistance, focusing on the use of interjections and appeals for assistance, as well as on learner’s prompting and repair.

5.3.3.1. Interjections

Excerpt 67 (30.10. CG)

```
1  T: Co to jest? Who is it, Oliwia?
2  S6: Who is it?
3  S9: To jest (yyy) …
4  S6: Tata, … , nie, baby bear!
5  S9: Baby bear!
```

In Excerpt 67, the teacher addresses the question to the learner coded as S9, which is repeated in line 2 by S6. In line 3, S9 begins to answer the teacher's question in L1, which ends up in a hesitation noise and a pause. Assistance is provided by S6 in line 4, who signals the search of the right word by an L1 interjection "nie".

Excerpt 68 (08.11. PG2)

```
1  P: What does Goldilocks do?
2  S3: Walk, nie … (yyy), nie=
3  S1: =run
4  T: Zosia, dobrze. Run, very good Zosia, run, run, run.
```

In Excerpt 68, the learner coded as S3 answers the puppet's question in line 2, but resorts to the L1 interjection "nie" and a hesitation noise, followed again by the interjection, which signifies his indirect request for assistance. The request is immediately reacted to by S1, who provides the right answer.

Excerpt 69 (13.11. CG)

```
1  T: A teraz … wy mnie się pytacie jak ja się mam, bo jak ja już
   się spytałam was jak wy się czujecie
2  S4: (yy) good? … nie.
3  T: How are you?
```

Excerpt 69 shows the learner coded as S4's unsuccessful attempt to ask the teacher the question "How are you?", where a communicative failure is signaled by a short pause and an L1 interjection (line 2).

Excerpt 70 (20.11. PG2)

```
1  S3: This is soft or hard?
2  S9: No.
3  S3: This is hard or (.hhh) nie hard tylko (.hh) this is soft or
   big?
4  S9: No.
5  S3: (y) (mmm) (yy)
6  T: This is cold or hot?
```

```
7  S3: (.hh) this is cold or … ten hot?
```

In Excerpt 70, the learner coded as S3 takes over from the teacher the leading of the communicative game, where learners are supposed to guess what is in the picture they cannot see. In line 3, S3, trying to ask another question, inserts the whole gambit "nie hard tylko" where he switches between L1, L2 and L1, which implies his consciousness as to what he is asking about. Receiving a negative answer, he resorts to hesitation noises in line 5, which are followed by the teacher's prompting. The excerpt finishes with S3 asking another question concerning the picture, where he signals hesitation by a pause and an L1 interjection "ten" in line 7.

Excerpt 71 (02.04. CGP)

```
1  T: To jak Oliwia nie chce się zapytać to Teddy się za nią zapy-
   ta.
2  P: Maciej, how are you?
3  S4: Ja chcę powiedzieć … (2) ten … Teddy ask Maciej.
4  P: Very good Wiktoria.
5  S7: I'm sleepy.
6  P: Oh, you are sleepy. Ok, Maciej ask Bartek
7  S4:                      [teraz ja Maciej ask Bartek
8  P: Very good Wiktoria.
```

Excerpt 71 shows an active participation in classroom discourse demonstrated by the learner coded as S4 (lines 3 and 7). It begins with the puppet's question directed to S7 in line 2, which is followed by a self-initiated turn taken by S4, who attempts to nominate the participants in the forthcoming communicative exchange the way the puppet usually does. S4's utterance contains an L1 interjection "ten", which, together with pauses, signifies hesitation (line 3). The excerpt shows a further exchange between the puppet and S7, as well as the nomination of the two other learners, which is done both by the puppet and S4.

5.3.3.2. Appeal for assistance

Excerpt 72 (25.10. PG1)

```
1  P: Very good Justyna. Hello Weronika, hello. Who is it, Weroni-
   ka? Who is it?
2  S7: … (3)
3  P: Who is it?
4  S7: Nie wiem jak się mówi.
5  T: Nie wiesz jak się mówi. A podpowiedzieć Ci?
6  S9: [Papa Bear. ((whispering))
```

```
7  T: Papa Bear.
8  S7: Papa Bear.
9  P: Yes, papa Bear.
```

In Excerpt 72, the puppet approaches the learner coded as S7 with a question, while the rest of the group is involved in coloring pictures. S7 responds with silence in line 2, which is followed by the repetition of the question by the puppet in line 3. The learner responds with an appeal for assistance in line 4, which is provided by S9 in line 6 in the form of the learner's prompting overlapping with the teacher's turn. The teacher also provides prompting in line 7, which is incorporated by S7 in the subsequent turn. The whole excerpt finishes with positive feedback provided by the puppet.

Excerpt 73 (30.10. PG1)

```
1  P: OK, Łukasz. Take your book and sit down, sit down. Kuba, have
   you finished? Kuba, have you finished?
2  S2: Co mam powiedzieć?
3  T: I have finished. Masz powied-
4  S2: I have finished.
5  P: What a mess! What a mess!
6  T: Jaki bałagan!
7  P: You are naughty, come here Karolina and Kacper. Come here and
   make a circle.
```

Excerpt 73 presents an appeal for assistance applied by S2 in line 2, while being asked a question in L2 by the puppet. The teacher prompts S2 in line 3, which is followed by the repetition of the formula by S2 after the teacher. Further, the puppet, together with the teacher, attempts to restore order in the classroom.

Excerpt 74 (02.11. PG1)

```
1  T: A Teddy chce mnie się jeszcze zapytać, jak ja się dzisiaj
   mam.
2  P: Hello Pani Ania, how are you today?
3  T: I'm fine thank you. OK? Now children=
4  S6: =proszę Panią
5  T: Tak?
6  S6: A jak jest po angielsku Filip?
7  T: Philip.
```

Excerpt 74 illustrates an appeal for assistance employed by S6 in line 6 that brings about a new topic shift and interrupts the teacher's instruction. S6 takes over the teacher's turn in line 4 and addresses the teacher with a request, which is elaborated in line 6.

Excerpt 75 (20.11. PG2)

```
1  T: Kuba C.?
2  C: Nie ma.
3  S3: A jak jest że nie ma?
4  T: Absent, absent.
5  S3: absent.
```

Excerpt 75 presents a part of a roll call. The learner coded as S3 appeals to the teacher for assistance in line 3.

Excerpt 76 (22.11. PG2)

```
1  P: Show me the picture. Children=
2  S3: =Teraz siebie muszę zapytać.
3  P: Children, this porridge is cold. Cold.
4  T: Pokazujemy owsiankę. This porridge is cold.
5  T&C: Cold, cold. This porridge is cold.
6  P: Matthew …
7  S3: This is (y) ten …This is soft or hard?
8  S3: Soft.
9  S3: Very- …. This is (.hhh) chair?
10 S3: Ve- … (yy) jak sie mówi dalej? Jak to było?
```

Excerpt 76 begins with the puppet's instruction and an attempt to get the children's attention, which is interrupted by S3, who takes over its turn and demonstrates his readiness to perform the turn in the communicative game with himself. The puppet nominates S3 to perform the task in line 6. The learner begins the communicative exchange by asking himself in line 7 the question concerning his picture. He does it hesitantly, which is indicated by a hesitation noise, the L1 interjection and a pause. In line 8, he provides the answer to his question, which is followed by his attempt at providing positive feedback for himself in the form of "very-" the way the puppet or the teacher usually does it ("very good"). His failure at providing feedback is followed by a pause and another question in line 9, where he asks about the object in the picture. The audible long inbreath signifies his involvement in the communicative exchange. In his last turn (line 10), S3 retakes his attempt at providing positive feedback for himself and approaches the teacher with an appeal for assistance.

Excerpt 77 (26.02. CGP)

```
1  S4: Teddy, a jak się mówi po angielsku najlepszy przyjaciel?
2  T: The best friend.
3  S4: A jak powiedzieć: jesteś moim najlepszym przyjacielem?
4  T: To powiesz mu: you are my best friend.
5  S4: You are my best friend.
6  P: I'm very happy Wiktoria, I'm very happy.
7  T: On Tobie powie.
8  P: You are my best friend, too.
```

Excerpt 77 shows the willingness of the learner coded as S4 to talk with the puppet in L2 and appeal to the teacher for assistance (lines 1 and 3).

Excerpt 78 (28.02. CGP)

```
1  P: Kuba, do you like the poem?
2  S3: A jak się mówi że bardzo bardzo?
3  T: I like it very much.
4  S3: I like it very much.
5  P: Oh, I'm very happy.
```

In Excerpt 78, the puppet addresses the question to the learner coded as S3, who responds with an appeal for assistance directed to the teacher in line 2. Due to the teacher's prompting provided in line 3, he is able to inform the puppet about his positive feeling for the poem.

Excerpt 79 (28.03. CGP)

```
1  S3: I like it cold and yummy.
2  S6: [A jak jest po angielsku przecież to ja.
3  T: That's me.
4  S6: That's me!
5  T: Poczekaj na końcu się przyznasz.
```

In Excerpt 79, the learners are involved in the communicative game called "Who eats the Gingerbreadman hot and yummy?". In line 1, the learner coded as S3 denies having eaten it, and his turn overlaps with the turn initiated by S6, in line 2, in the form of an appeal for assistance, where he wants to admit to eating the gingerbreadman. The teacher provides the assistance in line 3 and asks S6 to wait till the end of the game to admit that one is guilty.

5.3.3.3. Learner's prompting

Excerpt 80 (02.11. PG1)

```
1  P: How are you Filip?
2  S6: I (yyyy)=
3  S7: =fine thank you.
4  S6: I'm fine thank you.
```

In Excerpt 80, the puppet's question addressed to S6 is responded to with a hesitation noise, indicating an indirect appeal for assistance. S6's turn is taken over by S7 in line 3, who provides assistance in the form of learner's prompting.

Excerpt 81 (06.11. PG1)

```
1  P: This is a- …. Sit down! What's this, Kacper?
2  S3: … (2)
3  P: What's this?
4  S6: Porridge.
5  S3: Porridge, porridge.
6  S9: [This is a porridge.
```

Excerpt 81 begins with the puppet's attempt to restore order in the classroom and a question addressed to S3, which is responded to by silence in line 2, treated as an indirect appeal for assistance. The prompting is provided by S6 in line 4, after the puppet's repetition of the question in line 3. The excerpt finishes with the provision of the answer by S3, whose turn overlaps with the turn of S9 formulating the whole sentence with the word in question.

Excerpt 82 (15.11. PG1)

```
1  P: Filip, do you remember the song?
2  S6: (yyy)
3  Sx: No, I don't. ((whispering))
4  Sx: Albo yes, I do.
5  S6: Yes, I do.
```

Excerpt 82 illustrates two cases of learner's prompting in line 3 and 4 done by the learners coded as Sx and Sx. The puppet's question in line 1 is responded to by S6 with a hesitation noise, which indicates an indirect appeal for assistance. The support is first provided by the learner coded as Sx whispering a negative answer in line 3, and then by another learner coded as Sx who offers an affirmative answer to the question using a language switch between L1 and L2 in line 4.

Excerpt 83 (27.11. PG1)

```
1  P: How are you Weronika?
2  S7: … (3) Jestem niewyspana.
3  T: To Teddy się zapyta=
4  S9: =I'm sleep.
5  T: Jakbyś powiedziała Karolina?
6  S9: Sleep.
7  T: Dobrze, ale Teddy ją się zapyta. Ja powiem mu żeby się zapy-
   tał ciebie po angielsku czy jesteś niewyspana.
8  P: Are you sleepy?
```

```
9  S7: Tak, sleep.
```

In Excerpt 83, the puppet's question is responded to, first, with a pause and then, an answer in L1 provided by S7 in line 2. The teacher intends to ask the puppet to prompt the learner with the question that would suit her answer, i.e. "Are you sleepy?", but does not manage to do that as the turn is taken over by S9 in line 4, who prompts S7 with the answer. The teacher in line 5 uses confirmation check to make sure that she has understood S9 correctly and after the provision of the answer by S9 in line 6, asks the puppet to address the right question to S7. After the puppet's question, S7 gives the answer, applying a language switch.

Excerpt 84 (29.11. PG1)

```
1  T: Justyna zaczyna?
2  S1: … (3)
3  S9: Hard? ((whispering))
4  S1: Hard?
5  T: Hard? No. Caroline.
```

Excerpt 84 illustrates a part of a communicative game, where the learners are supposed to guess what is in the picture the teacher has. It begins with the teacher's nomination of the learner coded as S1 to take a turn. The learner does not manage to formulate any question, which is responded to by S9 with the provision of assistance in line 3.

Excerpt 85 (26.02. CGP)

```
1  P: What's this?
2  S7: This is a …
3  S4: This is a cow.
4  P: This is a cow. Very good Wiktoria.
```

In Excerpt 85, learner's prompting is provided in line 3 by the learner coded as S4, who reacts to a pause inserted at the end of S7's answer to the puppet's question in the preceding turn, indicating an indirect appeal for assistance.

Excerpt 86 (05.03. CGP)

```
1  T: Teraz Wiktoria powiesz Teddemu żeby dotknął noska.
2  S4: … (4)
3  S7: Touch your nose.
```

```
4  S4: Touch your nose.
5  P: Ok, very good.
```

In Excerpt 86, learner's prompting is performed by S7 in line 3, after a pause in S4's turn in line 2.

Excerpt 87 (14.03. CGP)

```
1  S10: I like eat.
2  T: eating
3  S10: I-=
4  S9: =and
5  S10: [and … I like (yy) … jak to się mówiło?
6  S3:          [hopping?
7  S4: A które pokaż … pomożemy ci.
8  Sx: [sleeping?
9  S5: sleeping.
10 Sx: sleeping.
11 S4: and sleeping.
12 S10: and sleeping.
13 P: Very good Daniel. Daniel ask Mateusz.
```

In Excerpt 87, the learner coded as S10 is supposed to say two activities he likes doing. The stretch of discourse begins with his incorrect utterance, which is repaired by the teacher in line 2. S10's turn, where he makes another attempt at uttering a phrase, is taken over by the learner coded as S9 in line 4, who prompts S10 with the conjunction "and". In the subsequent line, S10 incorporates the provided assistance into his utterance, but stops with a pause and a hesitation noise, which is followed by his appeal for assistance. His pause and hesitation noise are reacted to by the learner coded as S3, who prompts him in the form of an utterance overlapping with S10's turn (line 6). An offer for help is also provided by S4 in line 7, whose turn overlaps with Sx's prompting in line 8. Further prompting is provided by S5 and S4 in lines 9 and 11, respectively, which is subsequently accepted by S10 in line 12. The excerpt finishes with the puppet's positive feedback for S10 and nomination of the two other learners to perform the task.

Excerpt 88 (14.03. CGP)

```
1  P: Weronika, what's this?
2  S5: … (4)
3  S6: [This is a cow.
```

```
4  Sx: (xxx) ((the attempt at prompting))
5  S7: Nie podpowiadaj!
6  S6:   [This is a cow … this is a cow
7  T: No, Weronika musi sama.
8  S6: This is a cow.
9  T: Jak był rolnik? … pokaż
10 S4: Ale nie podpowiadać=
11 S7: =To jest na pamięć!
12 S5: … (4)
13 P: No point.
```

Excerpt 88 illustrates how the classroom discourse becomes simultaneously cooperative and competitive. The learners are divided into two teams, whose members are supposed to name the pictures provided by the teacher, and if they provide the right answer, they score a point. It begins with the puppet's question addressed to the learner coded as S5, who responds with silence in line 2. The learner coded as S6 prompts S5 in line 3, although incorrectly. Another attempt to prompt S5 is undertaken by Sx in line 4, who is scorned and receives a reprimand from S7 in line 5. Meanwhile, S6 continues his prompting in lines 6 and 8, which turns into talk to self in L2. The teacher tries to elicit the answer from S5 in line 9 and encourages the learner to show the gesture which was used by the group to signify the word in question. S4 and S7 admonish the group not to prompt one another in line 10 and 11, respectively. S5 still remains silent, which finishes with the puppet's verdict in line 13.

5.3.3.4. Learner's repair

Excerpt 89 (30.10. PG2)

```
1  P: Hello Nikodem, how are you?
2  S5: I'm fine, than you.
3  P: Very good Nikodem!
4  S8: Nie than you, tylko thank you!
```

In Excerpt 89, the utterance produced by S5 in line 2 is repaired by S8 in line 4. The correction is not done in a gentle way and draws S5's attention to the error in pronunciation.

Excerpt 90 (20.11. PG1)

```
1  P: Michael, do you remember the song about TLM?
```

```
2  S4: (yyy) Yes, (yy) I don't.
3  S9: do!
4  T: To mówisz, No I don't. Jak nie pamiętasz to No, I don't, A
   jak pamiętasz to jest Yes, I do.
5  S4: Yes, I do.
```

In Excerpt 90, the utterance produced by S4 in line 2 is corrected by S9 in line 3. The correction is again not a gentle one, as S9 provides it in the form of an exclamation.

Excerpt 91 (22.11. PG1)

```
1  S7: Soft or haut?
2  S5: Nie haut … tylko hard.
3  S7: hard?
4  S1: (yy)
5  S9: [hard … (2) This is soft or hard?
6  S1:         [Yes
```

In Excerpt 91, the correction refers to pronunciation error and is presented in line 2, where S5 responds to the utterance produced by S7 in line 1. S7 accepts the repair in line 3, which is followed by a hesitation noise made by S1 in line 4. This is concomitant with S9 prompting S7 with the whole question in line 5.

Excerpt 92 (29.11. PG2)

```
1  P: Very good. Jacob.
2  T: Popraw Teddego.
3  S9: This is baby bear just right.
4  P: Ok Jacob.
5  S3: [Zapomnialeś jeszcze porridge.
6  T: Suzi.
```

In Excerpt 92, in line 5, the learner coded as S3 draws the learner coded as S9's attention to the fact that he omitted the word "porridge" in his utterance produced in line 3, where he was supposed to provide a true sentence about baby bear's porridge. S3's turn overlaps with the puppet's positive feedback for S9, which hints at S3's being on the alert to the potential gaps and errors in other learners' utterances.

Excerpt 93 (26.02. CGP)

```
1  P: This is for you Oliwia.
2  S9: Dziękuję Teddy.
```

```
3  S7: Mówi się thank you Teddy.
4  S9: Thank you Teddy.
```

In Excerpt 93, the learner coded as S7 admonishes another learner coded as S9 to respond to the puppet's turns in L2, which is accepted by S9 in line 4.

Excerpt 94 (26.02. CGP)

```
1  P: Color grandpa say.
2  S3: Color grand … papa … (3) Color grandpapa. ((talk to self))
3  S7: grandma albo grandpa. ((peer correction))
```

Excerpt 94 begins with the puppet's instruction. The learners are involved in coloring pictures, while one learner coded as S3 talks to himself in L2 and practices the word that he is coloring, though uttering it incorrectly and confusing it with the word "papa bear". In line 3, S7 reacts to the erroneous form of the word "grandpa" and makes S3 aware of the error he has made in talking to himself.

Excerpt 95 (02.04. CGP)

```
1  P: David ask Michael.
2  S7: … (3)
3  P: And you Michael?
4  S7: And you Michael?
5  S4: I like eating … I like=
6  S5: =nie!
7  C: [and.
8  S4: and hopping.
```

In Excerpt 95, the learners are supposed to ask one another what they like doing and their task is to choose two activities from the flashcards provided by the teacher. After the question asked by S7 in line 4, the learner coded as S4 answers it with a pause in the middle of the utterance, which signifies his inability to use the conjunction "and". This is responded to by S5 in line 6, whose exclamation expresses outrage that S4 produced the erroneous form of the utterance. The group provides a repair collectively in line 7, which overlaps with S5's turn.

5.4. Results' discussion

The results of the quantitative analysis enabled us to select those discourse features whose mean values of occurrence within the 11 transcribed lessons were proven to be different in terms of statistical significance in PG1 compared with CG, in PG2 compared with CG and in PG1 compared with PG2 in Study 1, and in CG compared with CGP in Study 2. For those discourse features we have employed a graphic presentation of the mean values of occurrence by means of interval estimation, which showed that these intervals do not overlap for PG1 in comparison with CG, and for PG2 in comparison with CG in Study 1, and for CG in comparison with CGP in Study 2. Finally, we have provided information on mean values' relative changes and we demonstrated whether the mean values of occurrence were higher or lower in the groups compared. In such a way, we managed to single out those discourse features that the puppet had a significant impact on, as well as those which it did not have any direct bearing.

To start with, comparing mean values of occurrence of 35 discourse features in PG1 and PG2, we can state that the two puppet's groups are homogeneous in terms of the application of discourse strategies by learners. The results of the t-test revealed that there are no statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence of all, except for one, i.e. repetition, discourse features, which hints at the appropriate selection of the two groups.

As far as the learners' initiative and turn-taking behavior is concerned, we have recorded a greater number of self-initiated turns in L1 in CG in Study 1. This discourse feature was on average 52% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups in Study 1, whereas in Study 2 we did not find a statistically significant difference in the mean values of occurrence for CG and CGP. For this reason it is difficult to establish that the use of the puppet during the lesson has contributed to the decrease in self-initiated turns in L1 in the classroom discourse. The results of a qualitative analysis show that the learners self initiated turns in L1 in order to draw the teacher's attention (Excerpt 3), to satisfy their curiosity by asking questions concerning the puppet or England (Excerpt 1) or to express their insistence (Excerpt 2). The majority of such turns in the analysed sample brought about a topic switch and constituted verbal attention getters in L1. On the other hand, we may state that the puppet is conducive to taking self-initiated turns in L2 by children, which is confirmed both in Study 1 and Study 2 by the results of the t-test, as well as the relative changes of mean values of occurrence. The results inform us that in Study 1 this particular discourse feature was on

average 50,5% higher in the experimental groups than in CG, and similarly in Study 2 it was 83% higher in CGP than in CG. The qualitative analysis reveals that the learners' self-initiated turns in L2 had several functions. We could observe that by self initiating turns in L2, the learners gradually took over the roles that belonged to the teacher's or the puppet's domain. That is, they started to take over the so called classroom routines such as restoring order in the classroom (Excerpt 6 and 7) or bringing another learner to order (Excerpt 10); providing feedback on another learner's performance in L2 (Excerpt 8); nominating other learners to take turns (Excerpt 12); and addressing a question to the group at the end of the activity (Excerpt 13). Moreover, the purpose of self-initiated turns in L2 was to inform the puppet about something, e.g. about the completion of a task (Excerpt 5), or to ask it a question (Excerpt 11). Many self-initiated turns in L2 were constituted by talk to self in L2, which formed the background to the ongoing classroom interaction (Excerpt 4).

As for the turns taken by the children in reaction to utterances produced by their peers, we noted that the mean values of occurrence of another-learner initiated turns in L1 were different in terms of statistical significance only in Study 1. This discourse feature was on average 56% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups. If we were to compare it with the results achieved by means of a t-test for the mean values of occurrence of another-learner initiated turns in L2, then we obtain statistically significant differences only in Study 2 for CG and CGP. The mean value of occurrence was almost three times, i.e. 142%, higher in CGP than in CG, which hints at the puppet's remarkable influence and means that in its presence, the children were more sensitive and attentive to what their peers were saying, and formulated more reactive utterances in L2 rather than in L1, as it was in the case of the previously discussed discourse feature when the puppet was not being used. The qualitative analysis shows that the learners in another-learner initiated turns in L1 attempted to draw the teacher's attention to themselves or to add something to the previous learner's turn (Excerpt 14). Another-learner initiated turns in L2 served to complete the preceding learner's utterance (Excerpt 15) or to translate into L2 what another learner said in L1. Furthermore, they occurred in cases when one learner tried to restore order in the classroom and another assisted him in doing so (Excerpt 16). The majority of another-learner turns in L2 were constituted by learner's prompting. We also noted an exceptional case of another-learner turn in L2 which appeared in PG2 when the learner performed the communicative exchange with himself acting as if there were two learners participating in the exchange (Excerpt 17).

Overlapping utterances constituted another discourse phenomenon within the turn-taking behavior we were investigating. T-test's results did not reveal any statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence for overlapping utterances in L1 in all the groups, in both stages of the study, while for overlapping utterances in L2, variant T/P, it did. In Study 1, this discourse feature was 232% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG, and in Study 2, 315% higher in CGP than in CG. This remarkable increase in the application of this discourse feature means that in the presence of the puppet children became more attentive to what the teacher or the puppet were saying and by means of the utterances in L2, overlapping with the teacher's or the puppet's turn, they displayed greater willingness to participate in the classroom discourse by actively taking part in it and creating a joint performance in L2 with the teacher or the puppet. When it comes to the other variant of this feature, i.e. utterances in L2 overlapping with another learner's turn, the results of the t-test revealed statistically significant differences in mean values of occurrence only in Study 2. Hence, in Study 1, the children in all the groups compared applied this discourse feature to the same extent, whereas in Study 2, we recorded an almost fourfold increase in its mean value of occurrence in CGP compared with CG. This type of utterances was 190% higher in CGP, which demonstrates the children's responsiveness to utterances produced by other discourse participants, in this case other learners. Again, as it was in the case of overlapping utterances in L2, variant T/P, the learners, by the application of utterances in L2 overlapping with other learners' turns, demonstrated greater involvement in the L2 classroom discourse. A similar effect of the puppet's presence was obtained by the application of the latched utterances produced by the children. In Study 1, the results of the t-test revealed statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence of latched utterances produced in L1 right after another learner's turn. The relative changes of mean values indicate that these types of utterances were on average 71% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups. In this case, the results of the t-test did not show statistically significant differences in mean values of occurrence in Study 2. When it comes to latched utterances produced in L2 right after the teacher's or the puppet's turn, the results of the t-test revealed difference in terms of statistical significance between mean values of occurrence both in Study 1 and Study 2. This type of utterance was on average 124% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG in Study 1, whereas in Study 2 – 216% higher in CGP than in CG, which means that the increase was noteworthy, as it was more than twofold in Study 1, and more than fourfold in Study 2. For another variant of this discourse feature, i.e. latched utterances produced in L2 right after another learner's turn, the results of the t-test showed statistically

significant differences in the mean values of occurrence only in Study 2. We observed a considerable increase, i.e. by 245%, in the use of this discourse feature by children in CGP compared with CG. On the basis of the results concerning latched utterances, we may claim that in the puppet's presence the learners' ability to seize the turn from other discourse participants, i.e. the teacher, the puppet or another learner, increases and the learners are more likely to produce latched utterances more often in L2 than in L1. All in all, owing to the puppet, the child becomes an active participant in the L2 classroom discourse.

The qualitative analysis demonstrates that learners' utterances in L2 overlapping with the teacher's or the puppet's turn occurred when the learner anticipated the teacher's or the puppet's question and provided the answer in the middle of it (Excerpt 19). They also constituted talk to self in L2, which formed the background to the ongoing classroom interaction (Excerpt 19, 20 and 21), or the repetition of a part or all of the utterance in the preceding turn. The other variant, i.e. learners' utterances overlapping with another learner's turn, mainly appeared in the learner's prompting overlapping with another learner's prompting (Excerpt 23) and in learner's correcting another learner's erroneous utterance or providing the L2 version of it in cases when the preceding turn was in L1 (Excerpt 24). Latched utterances produced in L2 right after the teacher's or the puppet's turn revealed the learner's ability to anticipate their questions (Excerpt 26), complete the teacher's prompt in providing the answer to the puppet's question (Excerpt 27), to take over the puppet's/teacher's roles in calling for the children's attention (Excerpt 29), and in providing instruction for the group (Excerpt 30). Latched utterances produced in L2 right after another learner's turn were mainly constituted by learner's repair (Excerpt 32) and learner's prompting (Excerpt 33 and 34).

Another investigated discourse phenomenon refers to learning and communication strategies. On the basis of the results obtained, it has been observed that the puppet exercises influence on the greater or lesser use of particular learning and communication strategies by children. The results of the t-test show that mean values of occurrence of repetition are different in terms of statistical significance both in Study 1 and Study 2. In Study 1, it is on average 72,5% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups, while in Study 2 – 71% higher in CG than in CGP. A similar change can be noticed in Study 2 in the result obtained for memorization, which is 81% higher in CG in comparison with CGP. Bearing in mind that repetition and memorization are in Chesterfield and Chesterfield's (1985) typology the least linguistically and interactively demanding, as they do not serve to further interaction, we assume that owing to the puppet, children tend to avoid them in favor of, hopefully, the

application of more creative, L2-based strategies. Verbal attention getter was another examined learning strategy. We managed to obtain a statistically significant difference in the mean values of occurrence only for the variant produced in L1. In addition, the other variant, in L2, appeared extremely rarely in our statistical sample. Therefore, in this case it is difficult to find any influence of the puppet. On the other hand, we managed to observe the puppet's positive influence on the learners' ability to create coinages. The results of the t-test revealed statistically significant differences in the mean values of occurrence of this communication strategy both in Study 1 and Study 2. In Study 1, it was 325% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG, whereas in Study 2 – 225% higher in CGP than in CG. It signifies that in the puppet's presence, children may start to apply more creative, L2-based strategies, whose objective is to sustain interaction and communication in the L2 classroom discourse. Equally positive change can be observed in the case of language switch, an L1-based strategy. The children tended to avoid this communication strategy when the puppet was used during the lesson, which is proven by the relative changes of the mean values of its occurrence. In Study 1, it was on average 78,5% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups, while in Study 2 – 66% higher in CG when compared with CGP. Hence, the positive influence of the puppet manifested itself in the fact the children switched between L1 and L2 to a lesser extent than in the absence of this imaginary teaching device. Translation into L1 of the teacher's or the puppet's utterances produced in L2 was the last of the learning strategies investigated in our study. The results show that in the puppet's presence children apply this strategy considerably more frequently. The relative changes of mean values of its occurrence inform that translation was on average 305,5% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG in Study 1, and similarly in Study 2 – 367% higher in CGP than in CG. On the basis of our observations, we may state that, owing to the application of this strategy, children assume the role of the translator or mediator between the puppet or the teacher and the rest of the group, consequently enhancing their self-esteem as learners of EFL.

The qualitative analysis of learning and communication strategies displays their idiosyncrasies. To begin with, in the case of repetition, the learners tended to repeat the teacher's or the puppet's questions instead of answering them, which definitely did not further communication (Excerpt 35 and 36). As for memorization, the learners sometimes employed a phrase from a poem or a song while answering the puppet's question (Excerpt 37, 38 and 39), which appeared to be erroneous in a given context. Only in one case (Excerpt 40), did memorization occur to be effective when the group prompted in chorus the learner

appealing for assistance. Verbal attention getter in L1 was used when a learner attempted to draw the teacher's attention to oneself (Excerpt 41), or to boast of his/her proficiency in L2, which sometimes resulted in fierce competition for the teacher's praise (Excerpt 42). The learners used word coinage when addressing a question to the teacher or to the puppet (Excerpt 43) and when providing the answer to the puppet's question (Excerpt 45). It has to be born in mind that the majority of coinages phonetically resembled the target word. As far as language switch is concerned, the learners applied this L1-based strategy when providing an answer to the teacher's or the puppet's question (Excerpt 50, 51, 53 and 54), explaining something to the teacher (Excerpt 52), creating new meanings on the basis of the structures they already possessed in their linguistic repertoire (Excerpt 55), or talking to one another while being involved in communicative games (Excerpt 56). Finally, the learners translated into L1 the puppet's positive feedback provided for another learner (Excerpt 57), its instructions and questions directed to the group (Excerpt 58, 59, 61 and 64) and its reprimands (Excerpt 60). We could observe that usually the same learners, one or two in a group, assumed the role of a translator.

The last discourse phenomenon that came under scrutiny in our analysis was the phenomenon of assistance, known also as scaffolding. We endeavored to examine the extent to which learners relied upon one another and the teacher for assistance, i.e. to analyze the strategies they used to obtain assistance either from peers or the teacher, as well as to provide assistance for one another. As far as the indirect requests for assistance are concerned, the results of the t-test revealed statistically significant differences in the mean values of occurrence only in the case of interjections. The puppet's presence did not have any influence on the use of hesitation noises as well as the number and sum of pauses in the children's utterances. Interjections were on average 74% higher in CG than in the puppet's groups in Study 1, and similarly in Study 2 – 81% higher in CG than in CGP. On the basis of this result, we may assume that, owing to the puppet, children's utterances are devoid of interjections in L1, which show signs of uncertainty, and consequently have become more fluent. The qualitative analysis presented the functions of interjections, which signaled the learner's search of the right word (Excerpt 67), the indirect request for assistance (Excerpt 68), the learner's consciousness as to the correctness of his/her utterance (Excerpt 69 and 70), and hesitation, e.g. while competing with the puppet for the floor (Excerpt 71).

As for direct requests for assistance, the results of the quantitative analysis show that the puppet's presence evoked curiosity among the children about how to say something in L2. Facing linguistic deficiency, they employed the strategy of an appeal for assistance

directed to the teacher. This strategy was 290% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG in Study 1, and 440% higher in CGP than in CG in Study 2. This remarkable increase in the use of an appeal for assistance in both stages of the study indicates children's greater willingness to produce utterances in L2 in the puppet's presence and their greater reliance, in the positive sense of this word, on the teacher for support in L2 communication. The results of the qualitative analysis reveal that the learners appealed for assistance when not knowing how to answer the puppet's question (Excerpt 72 and 73), when attempting to say something to the puppet in L2 (Excerpt 77), when trying to introduce a new topic (Excerpt 74) and in other contexts, e.g. during the roll call (Excerpt 75) and talking to oneself in L2 (Excerpt 76).

The last stage of the analysis comprised the strategies the teacher and the learners used to provide assistance for one another. The results of the t-test showed statistically significant differences between mean values of occurrence only in the case of learner's prompting and learner's repair in both stages of the study. It means that the learners in all the groups compared relied on the teacher's support, i.e. teacher's prompting and teacher's repair, to a similar extent. For this reason, the differences between the groups manifest themselves in the learners' supportive action. It results that the puppet stimulates children to support other learners in the L2 communication and makes them more conscious participants in the L2 classroom discourse. Owing to the puppet, children undertake the teacher's role in the domain of assistance and become more sensitive to the linguistic difficulties their discourse partners face. The qualitative analysis shows that learner's prompting occurs in communicative games (Excerpt 84) and while interacting with the puppet. It is sometimes carried out by several learners simultaneously (Excerpt 87) or consecutively, i.e. one learner provides the optional answer and the other – another possible one (Excerpt 82). Learner's repair, on the other hand, usually contained language switch and sometimes was not conducted in a gentle and supportive way (Excerpt 89, 90 and 91). However, the learners proved to be on the alert to the ongoing L2 communication as they were able to point to the missing words in their peers' utterances (Excerpt 92 and 95), to detect errors and correct them in the learners' talk to oneself in L2 (Excerpt 94), or to admonish another learner to respond to the puppet's utterances in L2 (Excerpt 93). The relative changes of mean values of occurrence, obtained in the quantitative analysis, show that learner's prompting is 55% higher in the puppet's groups than in CG in Study 1, while in Study 2 we observe a remarkable increase in the use of this strategy by the children from CGP, where it is 385% higher than in CG. As far as learner's repair is concerned, it is 512,5% higher in the pup-

pet's groups in Study 1, and in Study 2 – 700% higher in CGP than in CG, which hints at a significant increase in the children's ability to respond to and to correct erroneous utterances formulated by their peers.

Chapter 6: Concluding remarks and implications

6.0. Introduction

The aim of the present dissertation was to describe and explore educational discourse in the Polish EFL kindergarten context. For that purpose, we have appealed to young learners' ability to function on two dimensions, one real and the other fictitious, as well as to their propensity for creating imaginary friends by introducing the puppet, which acted as a native speaker of English and teacher's assistant. In this way, an attempt has been made to investigate both the functions the puppet performs in teaching a foreign language to children and the changes it brings to child's L2 classroom discourse.

The following chapter is going to present concluding remarks and implications drawing on the theoretical considerations and the analysis of the results provided in the previous parts of the dissertation. We will endeavor to characterize the impact of the puppet on teaching EFL to kindergarten children and further to delineate the modifications that educational discourse undergoes after the implementation of this didactic tool. Moreover, a set of implications will be provided with regard to further research in the field of foreign language kindergarten and early elementary school didactics, as well as foreign language learning and teaching at this level.

6.1. Conclusions

The concluding remarks illustrated in the forthcoming sections will be presented in points which intend to feature and frame all the important information generated by the discussion of the research results (see sections 5.1.3. and 5.4.).

6.1.1. Conclusions from the background study

The background study raised questions regarding children's reactions to the puppet, the extent to which it exerts influence on specific aspects of a lesson as well as young learners' behavior, and which aimed at discovering whether the effect of habituation to the presence of the puppet occurs. As such, we may conclude that:

1. The puppet influences children's motivation to learn a foreign language, which can be observed in their enhanced involvement in classroom assignments. Therefore, it can be regarded as a salient motivational factor in young learners' foreign language instruction.

2. The figure of the puppet, together with its personality concocted by the teacher, arouses interest and curiosity among children, which is propitious for the improvement of their attitude towards foreign language learning. Due to the puppet's use, the aims and tasks set by the teacher are met with children's enthusiasm and a positive reaction. Bearing in mind the limitations of children's concentration span, the puppet helps the teacher to focus young learners' attention on a given task.

3. The use of the puppet contributes to the maintenance of greater discipline in the classroom. In our study, the puppet was recognized as an authority and enjoyed the children's acceptance. For this reason, in cases of misbehavior, it functioned as a very efficient device in calming the learners down and restoring order in the classroom.

4. The puppet sparks the need in children to communicate in the target language. Since the teacher is usually a native speaker of Polish in the Polish kindergarten context, the risk is that children will overuse their mother tongue in the classroom interaction. Our study proves that the puppet constitutes for young learners a vital incentive for communication and spontaneous utterances in the target language. Being a native speaker of English that

evokes children's liking and interest, it diminishes young learners' inhibitions and encourages them to use the foreign language on the basis of the resources they have in their linguistic repertoire. However, the permanent implementation of the puppet in a foreign language kindergarten classroom results in habituation, a phenomenon recorded in our study, which evinced itself in the diminished need to communicate in EFL by children. If used on a regular basis, the puppet becomes indifferent and less conspicuous to children, and loses its encouraging and stimulating power. Perhaps the possible negative effect of such habituation can be mitigated if the teacher withdraws the puppet for several lessons, meanwhile providing the learners with a plausible reason (e.g. the puppet goes to England for Christmas) and reporting to them on its way of spending free time (e.g. in the form of a letter or a postcard received from the puppet). Yet, it is of paramount importance that in the meantime the teacher supplies other forms of authentic input, such as storytelling, CDs with nursery rhymes or videos with short dialogues performed by British or American children, etc. After the break, the puppet can reappear, which will definitely stimulate children's motivation and rekindle their interest in a foreign language and its learning.

5. The puppet decreases the distance between the teacher – an adult person – and the group of children. It functions as an amusing extension of the teacher and enables him/her to establish warmer and friendlier relations with young learners. Due to the puppet, children can more quickly acquire a sense of confidence in their linguistic abilities and trust in the teacher.

6. The puppet arouses children's interest in the culture of the country it comes from, which in our study has been proven by the numerous questions about England the learners asked. One should take into consideration the fact that a foreign language and a country constitute abstract terms for a child. Owing to the puppet, these concepts become more tangible and concrete. The teacher, by using the puppet, can bring children closer to the culture of the target language, e.g. by introducing customs prevailing in a foreign language country.

6.1.2. Conclusions from the study proper

The study proper investigated what discourse strategies are used, in the presence of the puppet, by young learners that help them to succeed in L2 classroom interaction and that are conducive to L2 development. It results that educational discourse in the EFL kindergarten classroom undergoes the following modifications after the implementation of the puppet acting as a teacher's assistant and as a provider of authentic input:

1. Due to the puppet, the child as an EFL learner becomes a more active and conscious participant of classroom discourse. His/her activity manifests itself in a greater number of self-initiated turns in L2, by means of which the child gradually takes over the didactic roles belonging to the teacher's or the puppet's domain. His/her linguistic consciousness can be seen in his/her increased ability to notice and correct the errors in his/her peers' utterances as well as in the capacity to spontaneously improve them.

2. The child, by creating a joint performance in L2 with the teacher, the puppet or another learner, demonstrates greater involvement and willingness to participate in the L2 classroom discourse. This is implied by enhanced application of overlapping utterances and latched utterances in L2.

3. The puppet compels young learners to be more attentive to other discourse participants' utterances, i.e. the puppet's, the teacher's and other learners'. It can be observed in the formulation of more reactive utterances in L2, which are constituted by another-learner initiated turns in L2; utterances in L2 overlapping with the teacher's, the puppet's or another learner's turn; and latched utterances produced in L2 right after the teacher's, the puppet's or another learner's turn. All these discursive behaviors demonstrate children's responsiveness to utterances produced by co-participants in the classroom discourse.

4. We have observed a significant decrease in the use of strategies which are the least linguistically and interactively demanding and which do not further interaction in L2, such as repetition and memorization, and L1-based strategies, i.e. language switch, in favor of the application of more creative, L2-based strategies, which serve to sustain interaction and communication in the L2 classroom discourse, i.e. word coinage. Moreover, on the basis of lesson transcripts, we managed to distinguish the strategy of translation of the puppet's or the teacher's utterances produced in L2 into L1, which appeared considerably more fre-

quently in the puppet's presence. As a result, some children assumed the role of translator or mediator between the puppet or the teacher and the rest of the group, consequently enhancing their self-esteem as EFL learners.

5. Due to the puppet, classroom discourse becomes more supportive and collaborative. A picture emerges of learners actively assisting one another in L2 classroom communication and showing discursive behaviors which promote L2 development. Young learners become more sensitive to the difficulties their discourse partners experience and offer assistance when needed. Their supportive actions evince themselves in learner's prompting and learner's repair. As such, the puppet creates a classroom atmosphere that is propitious for all-purpose use of L2. It stimulates young learners to assist their peers in L2 classroom communication and keeps them on the alert to ongoing L2 interaction as they are able to point to the missing words in their peers' utterances, to detect errors and correct them, or to admonish another learner to respond to the puppet's utterances in L2. As for the indirect strategies used for obtaining assistance, the puppet decreases the use of interjections in L1 by young learners, consequently making their utterances more fluent. Moreover, it evokes curiosity among them on how to say something in L2. Therefore, when facing a linguistic deficiency, young learners resort to an appeal for assistance directed to the teacher, which indicates their greater willingness to produce utterances in L2 in the puppet's presence and their greater reliance, in a positive sense, on the teacher for support in L2 classroom communication.

6. Due to the puppet, classroom discourse becomes more competitive, which can be seen in the young learners' increased propensity to seize the turn from other discourse participants, resulting in latched and overlapping utterances. In our study, the competitive atmosphere manifested itself in the fact that the learners even competed with the puppet for the floor, e.g. in nominating other learners to take turns or in the fact that learner's repair was not always conducted in a gentle and supportive way.

Having delineated the above concluding remarks, what follows is a set of implications for further research in the field of foreign language kindergarten and early elementary school didactics, as well as foreign language learning and teaching at this level.

6.2. Implications

The results obtained in our study and a list of concluding remarks and observations illustrated in the previous sections provide direct implications for further research in the field of kindergarten and early elementary school didactics, as well as foreign language learning and teaching at this level. These will be elucidated in the forthcoming sections.

6.2.1. Implications for further research

On the basis of the results derived from our study, it is feasible to conduct further research on child's educational discourse in a FL classroom, which may be presented in the following set of implications:

1. We hope that the empirical material gathered in the present dissertation will function as a stimulator for grasping specific problems related to child's FL classroom discourse. However, being aware of its limitations, we propose designing yet another study devoted to educational discourse in the EFL kindergarten context that would involve more homogenous groups in terms of their previous FL learning experience, consequently allowing for the control of more variables. It would also be worth examining children's discourse competence both in L1 and L2 before and after the study by means of appropriately designed pretest and post-test, respectively. This would hopefully enable researchers to clarify the impact of the puppet on attenuating various dysfunctions emerging in the course of speech development and deliver evidence in this pedagogical area. It is thus clear that our research proposal needs to be substantiated by more extensive empirical investigations which would be based on a larger population, different materials and complementary methods of gathering data.
2. An issue of concern in further research should also refer to examining the modifications the puppet brings to discourse produced by other than the subjects in our study age groups. Since kindergarten children very often begin their foreign language education at the age of 3, we suggest that researchers need to shed light on the puppet's influence on educational discourse occurring in foreign language classrooms of 3- and 4-year-olds. This would undoubtedly enable them to verify whether the discourse strategies produced in this age group are the same as identified in our study or whether they differ. Consequently, this line

of investigation would help us to investigate if the puppet bears a similarly positive influence in the younger age group as it does in groups of 5- and 6-year old children. Finding the answer to this question ought to be followed by collecting further empirical data which would provide an explanatory account of the age up to which the puppet exerts influence on classroom discourse in a FL context and what is its specific impact based on in the group of early elementary school learners.

3. A considerable part of further research should be centered around the evaluation of the course book materials devoted to young learners' FL teaching with regard to their application of the puppet. Since the program *Kraina Baśni* utilized for the purpose of the current dissertation does not implement the puppet as a teacher's assistant, and it is the author of the present dissertation that decided how to operate it so as to enhance FL communication in the kindergarten classroom, it would be worth taking a closer look at the way the puppet is used with other materials. Bearing in mind the fact that it constitutes an integral element of the majority of course books used at the kindergarten and early elementary school level, we suggest that researchers may analyze a selection of them and the attached teacher's books in order to discover if there are any precise guidelines for the puppet's implementation in the classroom, as well as for its effective communication in L2 with young learners and facilitation of their communicative competence, with special emphasis on discourse competence.

4. Finally, taking into consideration the child's potential as an active participant in L2 educational discourse, further research needs to search for other, than the puppet, methods of encouraging young learners to contribute successfully to meaningful L2 communication in a foreign language classroom.

To conclude, further investigation into educational discourse in the FL kindergarten and early elementary classroom will undoubtedly enable researchers to better explain and understand child's L2 discourse and phenomena related to this field. On this note, it seems that the subject matter discussed here is not fully scrutinized and has also significant implications for foreign language didactics, which will be presented in the section to follow.

6.2.2. Implications for foreign language didactics

The study under consideration and its outcomes appear to be of great significance for foreign language didactics at the kindergarten and early elementary school level, which can be elucidated in the following set of implications:

1. Since the puppet brings young learners closer to the culture of the target language, it may provide a significant incentive for a cultural project based on customs and traditions prevailing in the country the puppet comes from. The project ought to entail work with iconographic materials such as pictures, photos, maps and posters. The teacher can, for example, prepare a series of photos illustrating a foreign country's typical places, monuments and people, which could be presented and described by the puppet in the classroom. The iconographic material may serve as a springboard for other activities, e.g. a memory game. Another proposal would be a postcard sent by the puppet on his leave for England during the Christmas or Easter breaks, where it would describe, by means of the language already familiar to children, ways of celebrating holidays in its homeland. Additionally, the puppet could organize theatrical work with elements of movement and verbalization where it would serve as a language consultant and a prompter. The types of activities suggested here seem to offer a range of possibilities which may contribute to the development of young learners' intercultural competence and may help them to recognize and identify with the foreign socio-cultural world. Moreover, this implication substantiates the commonly advocated tendency for incorporating cultural elements into FL learning and teaching, and needs to be taken into consideration by course book authors, who by means of the puppet could enhance young learners' ability to reflect on other cultures and introduce a cultural dimension to the kindergarten or early elementary FL classroom context.
2. The outcomes of the study conducted for the purpose of the present dissertation prove that the puppet evokes among young learners the use of discourse strategies which promote L2 development. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that the child is not a passive recipient of the linguistic input provided by the puppet, but actively constructs his/her knowledge and reveals communicative skills in L2. This, consequently, necessitates the organization of special workshops targeted to FL teachers working in kindergarten and early elementary school levels on ways of enhancing young learners' communication in L2 in a foreign language classroom. This indication is also of great importance for glottodidactics

at the university level and implies the introduction of modifications into the current methodology courses designed for students of pedagogy integrated with early elementary foreign language education, which should include a thorough discussion of child's speech development both in L1 and L2, with special emphasis on the communicative domain. In addition, the implication calls for changes in the system of young learners' foreign language education, a serious refinement of available course books being one of them. Since teaching a foreign language to children is usually based on imitative and reproductive skills, such as singing songs or reciting poems in a foreign language, it is of paramount importance that course book authors pay closer attention to children's communicative capabilities and linguistic creativity, which should result in the design of a greater number of activities, e.g. communicative games, due to which children would stand a chance of revealing and exploiting their potential as active and conscious participants in FL classroom discourse.

3. It has been emphasized in the theoretical part of the present dissertation (see section 3.6) that the role of the puppet is multifaceted. In the study under consideration the figure of a small bear has been applied and by being endowed with personality, became animated both by the teacher and the learners. Since course book materials offer a wide range of puppets that differ in form, it would be sensible to verify what type of puppet, i.e. whether the figure of an animal, an ethnic one, e.g. a boy wearing a traditional Scottish kilt, or neutral, e.g. a ghost as offered by the course book *New Hurray* (Kleban et al. 2009), exerts the most significant impact on young learners' FL teaching and classroom discourse.

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Appendices

Appendix A – Observation sheet (the non-participant observation no 1)

Lesson stages	The reaction to an activity (–2, –1, 0 ,1, 2)	Discipline (–2, –1, 0 ,1, 2)	The need to communicate in English (–2, –1, 0 ,1, 2)	Involvement (–2, –1, 0 ,1, 2)	Comments / Suggestions / Criticism
1. Greeting in English					
2. The song "Three little monkeys"					
3. Flashcards (bed, chair, porridge) – revision of nouns					
4. A communicative game "Yes or no" (children are supposed to correct a false sentence)					
5. A guessing game					
6. Game: "Dead call"					
7. A farewell poem					

Appendix B – Observation sheet (the non-participant observation no 2)

Lesson stages	The reaction to an activity (–2, –1, 0 ,1, 2)	Discipline (–2, –1, 0 ,1, 2)	The need to communicate in English (–2, –1, 0 ,1, 2)	Involvement (–2, –1, 0 ,1, 2)	Comments / Suggestions / Criticism
1. Greeting in English –How are you?/I'm fine, thank you. –Are you happy/angry/sad?/Yes, I am. / No, I'm not.					
2. The revision of two poems, which appear in the story					
3. Telling the story about gingerbreadman					
4. Memory game (the revision of nouns)					
5. The song "Head and shoulders"					
6. The revision of body parts (Teddy, touch your …)					
7. A game: gingerbreadman in pieces					
8. A farewell poem					

Streszczenie

Niniejsza rozprawa doktorska dotyczy dyskursu edukacyjnego w nauczaniu języka angielskiego dzieci w wieku przedszkolnym i składa się z 6 rozdziałów. Trzy pierwsze rozdziały mają charakter teoretyczny, dwa kolejne stanowią część empiryczną pracy. Natomiast ostatni rozdział zawiera wnioski z przeprowadzonych przez autorkę rozprawy badań oraz implikacje dla dydaktyki języka obcego na poziomie przedszkolnym oraz wczesnoszkolnym.

Efektywne nauczanie dzieci języków obcych stało się w ubiegłych latach jednym z edukacyjnych celów zjednoczonej Europy. Jednakże, jak zauważają badacze, edukacja językowa dzieci wciąż stanowi poważne wyzwanie, a jej kształt nie został do końca sprecyzowany. Dlatego też, podejmowane są badania mające na celu zgłębienie rozmaitych aspektów nauczania dzieci na wczesnym poziomie. Niniejsza rozprawa doktorska bada oraz analizuje dyskurs klasowy między nauczycielem a 5- i 6-letnimi dziećmi, i stara się dociec jakim modyfikacjom ulega on po wprowadzeniu pacynki, która odgrywa rolę asystenta nauczyciela oraz rodzimego użytkownika języka angielskiego, stając się jednocześnie źródłem autentycznego językowego *inputu*. Badacze i praktycy nauczania języków obcych są zgodni co do tego, że pacynka odgrywa istotną rolę w nauczaniu dzieci języków obcych: stanowi formę zabawy i motywujący bodziec do nauki, dzięki czemu umożliwia nauczycielowi stworzenie dzieciom przyjaznego środowiska do przyswajania języka obcego; sprawia, że lekcja staje się bardziej atrakcyjna i interesująca; pomaga nauczycielowi utrzymać uwagę dziecka na danym zadaniu, komunikuje się z uczniami tylko i wyłącznie w języku obcym, i co najważniejsze, będąc rodzimym użytkownikiem języka angielskiego – zmniejsza ryzyko nadużywania języka polskiego w komunikacji klasowej i zachęca dzieci do wypowiedzi w języku obcym.

Pierwszy rozdział prezentuje dyskurs w kontekście edukacyjnym. Aby w pełni zrozumieć genezę kompetencji dyskursywnej, omawiam ewolucję pojęcia kompetencji językowej. Następnie definiuję dyskurs i przedstawiam różne podejścia do tego zjawiska. Meritum tego rozdziału stanowi charakterystyka dyskursu edukacyjnego, zwanego inaczej klasowym. Autorka omawia jego cele, strukturę i typy, a także przedstawia rezultaty badań przeprowadzonych w Polsce w tym zakresie. Z przeglądu badań wynika, że nikt nie podjął się zbadania dyskursu klasowego dzieci na etapie przedszkolnym lub wczesnoszkolnym w kontekście nauczania języka obcego; większość badań to badania przeprowadzone na uczniach szkół średnich i wyższych. Stąd zapotrzebowanie na tego typu badania w Polsce, które mają na celu zbadanie komunikacji dzieci w klasie języka obcego.

Drugi rozdział pracy skupia się na poznawczym, społecznym i emocjonalnym rozwoju dziecka. W tej części pracy autorka odnosi się do literatury, zarówno polskiej i światowej, z zakresu psychologii rozwojowej. Przedstawia fazy rozwoju poznawczego, charakteryzuje sferę społeczno-emocjonalną życia dziecka, skupiając się na: procesie socjalizacji, i roli jaką odgrywają w nim rodzice i rówieśnicy; funkcji emocji i rozwoju emocjonalnej samoregulacji; oraz głównych zmianach w osobowości dziecka, w tym rozwoju samooceny i umiejętności oceny skuteczności własnego działania. Ponadto, zostaje omówiona istotna rola zabawy w życiu dziecka, odnosząc się do jej natury, typów i funkcji.

Ponieważ poznawczy i społeczno-emocjonalny rozwój dziecka jest nieodłącznie związany z rozwojem mowy, rozdział trzeci prezentuje rozwój językowy dziecka, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem sfery komunikacyjnej. Najpierw autorka omawia rozwój kompetencji językowej w języku ojczystym, wyróżniając rozwój słuchowy i fonologiczny, oraz rozwój syntaktyczny i morfologiczny. Kolejna sekcja rozdziału przedstawia rozwój kompetencji dyskursywnej dziecka w języku ojczystym, uwzględniając zarówno funkcje języka dziecka jak i jego językowe umiejętności (w tym: rozwój umiejętności zabierania głosu w rozmowie, sposoby radzenie sobie z nieporozumieniami, umiejętność stosowania figur spójności, a także typy wypowiedzi które podtrzymują wymianę werbalną między dziećmi). Następnie zostaje zaprezentowany rozwój kompetencji językowej w języku obcym, włączając w to: analogie między procesami przyswajania języka ojczystego i obcego, kolejność przyswajania morfemów w języku obcym oraz zjawisko interferencji. Ostatnim zagadnieniem prezentowanym w tym rozdziale jest przegląd badań na gruncie międzynarodowym dotyczących kompetencji dyskursywnej dziecka w języku obcym, z rozróżnieniem naturalnego kontekstu przyswajania języka i kontekstu szkolnego.

Czwarty rozdział prezentuje metodologię zastosowaną w przeprowadzonym przez autorkę badaniu, które składa się z dwóch typów: badania w tle i badania właściwego. Badanie w tle ma na celu określenie wpływu pacynki na nauczanie języka angielskiego dzieci, charakteryzuje grupę badawczą i wprowadza nas do badania właściwego, które polega na analizie wybranych aspektów dyskursu klasowego. Autorka rozprawy przyjmuje etnograficzne podejście, stosując trzy typy technik zbierania danych. Są to: obserwacja uczestnicząca i nieuczestnicząca w badaniu w tle i nagrania lekcji w badaniu właściwym, na podstawie których sporządzono wiele transkryptów lekcji, stanowiących podstawę do analizy dyskursu. Zbadano następujące aspekty dyskursu: mechanizm zabierania głosu, stosowanie strategii uczeniowych i komunikacyjnych przez dzieci, a także zjawisko wspomagania (*assistance*) w komunikacji klasowej.

Piąty rozdział prezentuje wyniki badań wraz z ich dyskusją i interpretacją. Rozdział szósty zawiera wnioski oraz implikacje dla dydaktyki języka obcego. Z badania w tle wynika, że stosowanie pacynki w znaczący sposób wpływa na nauczanie języka obcego dzieci w wieku przedszkolnym. Jej pozytywne działanie przejawia się w tym, że:

1. wywołuje w dzieciach potrzebę komunikowania się w języku obcym; stanowi istotny motywacyjny bodziec do komunikacji i spontanicznych wypowiedzi w języku obcym;
2. motywuje dzieci do nauki, co widoczne jest w zwiększonym zaangażowaniu dzieci w wykonywane zadania na lekcji;
3. sprawia, że wytyczone przez nauczyciela cele i zadania spotykają się z entuzjazmem i pozytywną reakcją dzieci;
4. przyczynia się do utrzymania lepszej dyscypliny w klasie; z analizy transkryptów lekcji wynika, że dzieci po wprowadzeniu pacynki przywoływały się nawzajem do porządku, co oznacza, że same utrzymywały dyscyplinę w klasie;
5. zmniejsza dystans między nauczycielem – osobą dorosłą a grupą dzieci;
6. przybliża dzieciom kulturę kraju, w którym używany jest dany język obcy.

Z badania właściwego, czyli analizy dyskursu wynika, że dzięki pacynce:

1. dziecko staje się bardziej aktywnym i świadomym uczestnikiem dyskursu klasowego:
   a) jego aktywność przejawia się w tym, że częściej inicjuje wypowiedzi w języku obcym, poprzez które stopniowo przejmuje role należące do domeny

nauczyciela i pacynki, e.g. przywoływanie dzieci do porządku, ocenianie wypowiedzi innego ucznia, nominowanie innego ucznia do zabrania głosu, prowadzenie gry komunikacyjnej;

b) jego świadomość językowa przejawia się w tym, że wzrasta jego zdolność do zauważania i poprawiania błędów w wypowiedziach rówieśników;

2. dziecko staje się bardziej wyczulone na wypowiedzi pozostałych uczestników dyskursu, czyli nauczyciela, pacynki i swoich rówieśników, co przejawia się, między innymi, w częstszym przechwytywaniu przez dziecko wypowiedzi innych uczestników dyskursu i ich dokańczaniu;

3. dyskurs staje się bardziej kooperatywny (w obecności pacynki dzieci udzielają sobie nawzajem wsparcia w komunikacji w języku obcym, np. poprzez podpowiadanie innemu uczniowi lub spontanicznym poprawianiu jego wypowiedzi);

4. obserwujemy spadek stosowania przez dzieci strategii mało wymagających pod względem językowym i interaktywnym, takich jak powtarzanie, na rzecz używania bardziej kreatywnych strategii, takich jak tworzenie neologizmów, które służą podtrzymaniu interakcji i komunikacji w języku obcym. Zanotowaliśmy również spadek mieszania kodów języka ojczystego i obcego w wypowiedziach dzieci.